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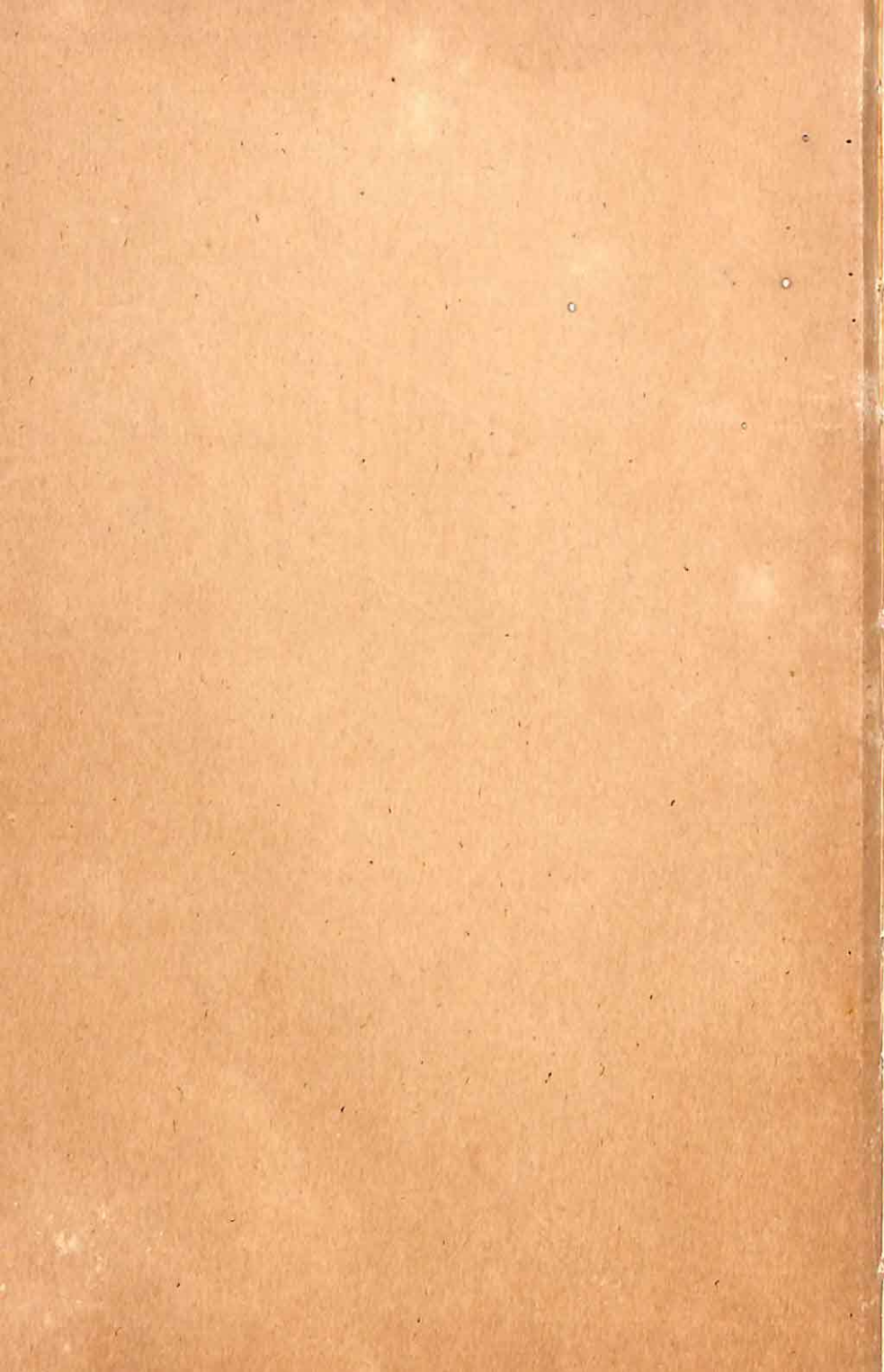
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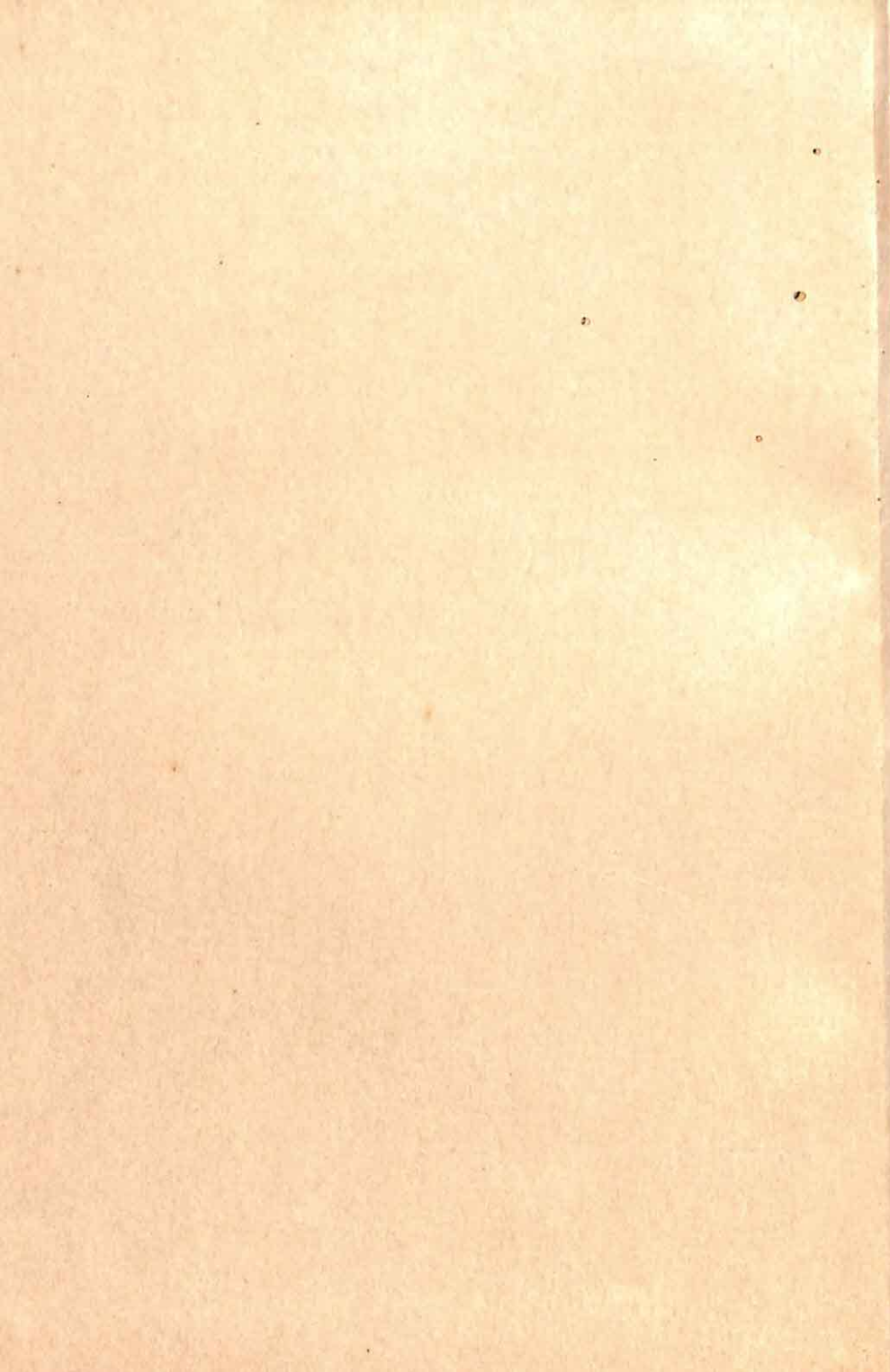
APPLETON SERIES IN SUPERVISION AND TEACHING

EDITED BY

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THE SUPERVISION
OF RURAL SCHOOLS



THE SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

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ALBERT W. B. B. B.

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PREFACE

During the past decade a number of volumes dealing with various aspects of supervision have been published. These volumes have presented the theory of supervision, its application both to the elementary- and the secondary-school subjects, its organization, and procedures. In practically every instance the application of the principles of supervision has been made to urban situations. The texts are written, primarily, for the urban generalist in supervision.

The supervisor of rural schools faces conditions undreamed of in urban areas. These conditions—the training, experience, and tenure of teachers; the grades and classes to be taught; the school enrollments; the length of the school year; the antiquated curriculum; the poorly equipped, inadequately planned school buildings; the number and geographical distribution of schools; the character and amount of supervision—make necessary certain modifications in accepted supervisory procedures which justify a distinct presentation of supervision as applied to rural schools. Discussions dealing with the problems of (*a*) planning county supervisory programs, (*b*) budgeting the time of the supervisor, (*c*) planning workable daily schedules for small schools, (*d*) visiting the rural classroom, (*e*) the supervisory uses of tests, (*f*) conferences with the rural teacher, (*g*) planning teachers' institutes and other conferences, (*h*) the use of demonstration lessons and supervisory bulletins, and (*i*) the making and interpretation of courses of study for rural schools, must recognize the modifying factors listed above and must suggest procedures which are practical in rural situations.

The volume has been written for those who are preparing for supervisory service in rural areas, for rural supervisors now in service, for county, town, and district superintendents, and principals

in charge of rural schools. It is hoped that teachers' colleges interested in the field of rural education will find it of value.

The material included has been drawn chiefly from three sources: *first*, the experience of both authors in state and county supervision of rural schools; *second*, the experience of both authors in developing and teaching courses dealing with the supervision of rural schools; and *third*, from a careful survey of current supervisory practice in progressive rural and urban schools throughout the United States. Throughout the text tested procedures have been presented. By tested procedure is meant, not only experimental data, but practical effective procedures used by successful rural supervisors.

In considering the problems of rural supervision the authors have had in mind the one-teacher school, as well as small and large consolidated schools. Although the problems of organization are different in small schools from those in large schools, the problems of supervision are often practically the same.

Liberal illustrations of actual practice in rural schools have been used to make clear and definite the principles developed. These illustrations have been furnished by so many rural supervisors that detailed acknowledgment here is impractical. Credit has been given in most instances to each author and publisher in the footnotes accompanying the quotations.

This manuscript is being completed while the National Education Association is holding its 1931 meeting at Los Angeles. The improvement of rural education has been its theme. The authors of this text modestly hope that it will make some contribution to this much needed improvement.

C. J. A.
I. J. S.

EDITORS' INTRODUCTION

Rural education, with its limited curriculum, inadequately trained personnel, and meager equipment, with its background of rural political, social, and economic life, and with its traditions, whims, and idiosyncracies, presents an urgent situation in American education. The importance of the problems of rural education are emphasized by the fact that more than one-third of the total school population of the United States depends for its education upon the rural school in which fully one-third of the teachers of the country are employed. At the moment probably no phase of American education offers a greater opportunity for real leadership than does rural education.

Little attention has been given in the rapidly growing literature of supervision to the problems of the rural school, yet the need of rural teachers for supervision is far greater than that in urban communities. A few experimental studies have been made, but nowhere in the literature is there a complete, organized treatment of rural supervision. The basic principles of supervision are, to be sure, the same for all divisions of the school system, but studies applying these principles to the special conditions and problems of selected fields are always of value. In this volume the authors have attempted such a presentation for the rural schools.

The special conditioning factors are set forth in remarkably explicit detail considering the unavoidable condensation of such introductory material. The authors have then drawn upon their own long and varied experience with rural schools in two representative states for a richly illustrated discussion of procedure. Though replete with case studies, typical procedures used by competent supervisors, devices, etc., the authors have not lost sight of the basic principles that are common to all supervision, urban or rural.

Certain enthusiastic exponents of "democracy," or greater teacher freedom in supervision, may object to the emphasis throughout the volume on training, guidance, and direction. The authors are keenly aware of the merits of the current emphasis on democracy with its fine concept of the stimulation of growth and independence for the teacher. They meet the issue, however, by presenting facts and figures regarding teacher status in the rural schools. Quoting a famous man, they feel they are "facing a condition, not a theory." The immature, amateur teacher typical of the rural school requires training, guidance, and, upon occasion, definite direction. It is perfectly clear that the democratically minded supervisor, finding superior teachers capable of growth in her group, may utilize the suggested techniques in the stimulation of self-analysis and independent growth for these teachers. All in all the volume makes an earnest effort to bring to rural supervisors the best theory, tempered with realization of the cold facts to be met in the rural field.

A. S. BARR

WILLIAM H. BURTON

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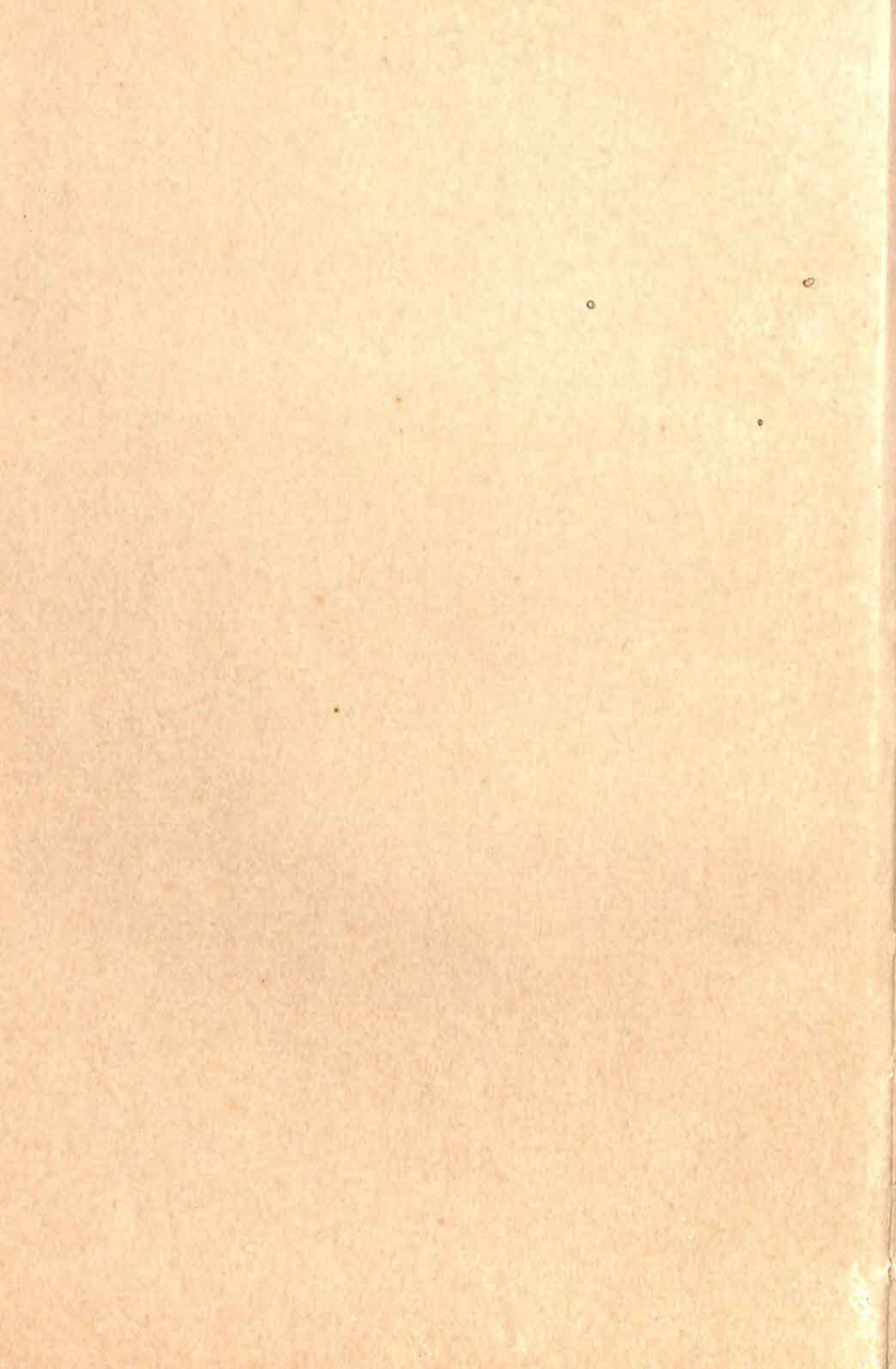
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PART I

THE PROBLEM OF RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION



CHAPTER I

THE STATUS OF THE RURAL SCHOOL

Supervision as we understand it in a well organized city-school system bears little resemblance to the annual visit made to each rural school by the county or district superintendent, or even to the five or six visits made by the special rural supervisor. The number of schools to be visited, the buildings and their equipment, the length of the school year, the number of grades taught by the teacher, the rural teacher—her maturity, training, experience, social background, tenure, and attitude toward her work—the social resources of the community, all these are factors that modify and determine rural supervisory procedure. The purpose of supervision is undoubtedly the same for open country and urban center. The improvement of teaching and teachers, setting up favorable conditions for the growth of children, guiding teachers in the selection and organization of socially valuable subject matter, measuring progress—these purposes do not change with the geographical setting of the school.¹ Procedures and techniques do change, however, and principles must be modified, for the present status of the rural school as found in most places does not permit their full realization.

In order fully to justify a distinct treatment of supervision as applied to the rural school, the present status of the rural school together with factors affecting the organization of rural-school systems is presented in Chapters I and II. These conditioning factors fall into two somewhat overlapping groups. The first

¹ For a comprehensive treatment of general principles and procedures in supervision the reader is referred to A. S. Barr and William H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (D. Appleton & Co., 1929).

group, when integrated, gives one a picture of the rural school. This group, as presented in Chapter I, includes the status of the rural teacher—her age, academic and professional training, and tenure—the rural-school curriculum, the tools of instruction, the school enrollment, the length of the rural-school year, and the rural-school building with its equipment. The second group, discussed in the first part of Chapter II, gives the setting of the rural school in the county-school system. It includes the geographical area of administration and supervision, the number, types, and distribution of rural schools, conditions of transportation, the number of teachers included in a supervisory unit, and the number and types of supervisory agents.

It is the purpose of Chapter I to present the function of the rural school and the present status of rural education as outlined above, in order that the conditions under which rural supervision must be undertaken will be clearly understood. Conditions as they exist in the rural schools are slow to change. Immediate hope for improvement through supervision must take account of these conditions. They become the starting point. While supervision is working to overcome the educational handicaps of the rural child, the administrative forces of the county and state are endeavoring to remove these handicaps through a reorganization of the agencies of rural education.

The rural school defined. Before any attempt is made to picture conditions in the rural school, a definition of the term is essential. The rural school as here understood is one which is primarily concerned with the education of children living on farms. The typical school is of the one-teacher type, although schools with several teachers may well be included. Estimates of the number of rural schools in the United States will differ because of varying interpretations of the term. A recent bulletin² states that approximately 325,000 of the 617,078 elementary public-school teachers are employed in rural schools, and about one-

² William McKinley, "Preparation of Rural Teachers," *U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin*, No. 36, 1927, p. 2.

half of the rural teachers are in schools of the one-teacher type. A more recent statement³ includes 153,300 teachers in one-room schools, 47,000 in two-teacher schools, and 100,000 in consolidated schools, making an approximate total of 300,000 rural teachers out of the 642,712 elementary teachers in the United States in 1928. This discussion is primarily concerned with the 200,000 teachers and the 3,000,000 pupils in one- and two-room rural elementary schools.

The function of the rural school. "The objective of all effort for the improvement of rural education must be, if we hold allegiance to our American ideals, that the educational opportunities provided for children living in rural areas of our country be made the full equivalent of those offered to children in the most favored urban communities."⁴

The primary function of the rural school is explicitly recognized to be the provision of a standard education for rural children and youth, to which all other efforts are to be subordinated. This is the chief community service of the school as well as its fundamental educational objective. The best service of the school to the community, in other words, must always be found in the proper discharge of its specific educational function, that is, in making itself a good school for the education of its pupils.⁵

These statements imply that education for the rural child does not differ in purpose from education for the urban pupil. Both must be given school conditions that will make possible individual growth. Both must be helped to live generously and effectively. Both must be efficient members of society. Differing elements of environment must be furnished in their school lives to meet rural or urban "lacks," but the ultimate goal of elementary education in either school is the same. They must master the same tools of

³ Mabel Carney in *The Status of Rural Education, Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, p. 155, 1931.

⁴ Final Report of the Committee on Rural Education of the National Education Association, p. 95, 1924.

⁵ Platform of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, 1924.

learning to the same degree. The contributions of preceding generations toward social growth should be their common property. Intelligent citizenship and the ideals of democracy must be as real and available to the rural child as to his urban neighbor.

This is the problem facing the rural supervisor. The status of the teacher whom she counsels, and the other factors conditioning rural education are presented below.

The rural teacher. Countless eulogies of the school teacher as a dominant factor in American life and democracy have been given. Presidents, governors, successful and outstanding men in every field of endeavor have given to the teacher the major credit for their successes. Buildings, equipment, books—all other instruments of education—fade in memory, but the influence of a good teacher remains undimmed. So whenever educational surveys are made or education is in any sense analyzed and evaluated, the teacher is pointed out as the most important factor. The teacher must realize the purposes set for an educational program; she must apply the school curriculum; she must guide wisely to bring about pupil growth and development, personal and social efficiency, and integrity in individual character.

School buildings, equipment, textbooks, libraries, and school organization are but instruments for the purpose of making good teaching possible. Any inquiry into the status of rural education must first take into account the status of the rural teacher. It must be remembered that rural teaching is a difficult branch of service. Its problems are varied and numerous, the range of subject matter to be mastered and taught is wide, the community responsibilities are probably greater than in any other teaching service.

Any extended analysis of the training of rural teachers makes emphatic the progress shown in the last decade. A few states, such as Rhode Island, Maryland, and California, have placed minimum standards at two years of training beyond high-school graduation. A large proportion of the states have fixed the intermediate step of one year of professional and academic training beyond high-

school graduation. Not only have advanced standards been set, but rural teachers are gradually meeting these standards.

One who compares the training of rural teachers a decade ago with their training to-day will become impressed with the progress that has been made. Actually, however, they have still a great distance to go. Data to show the distribution of training for all rural teachers in the United States are not available. Statements taken from reports of state departments of education and from surveys give this information for typical states:

Wisconsin rural teachers. Wisconsin⁶ reports 6,450 teachers of one-room rural schools. Of these 19 have had less than the equivalent of four years in high school; 232 or about 3 per cent are high-school graduates with no additional training, 5,756 or approximately 90 per cent have had one year of professional training beyond high school, and 440 or about 7 per cent meet the standard of two years of training beyond high school. In addition to these teachers there are 1,829 in state graded schools that are distinctly rural in character. Of this group 10 per cent have the equivalent of four years of high school, 40 per cent have one year of training beyond high school, and 50 per cent meet the standards for elementary-school teachers.

The rural teacher of Wisconsin is a country girl whose elementary schooling was received in a rural community. She is a graduate of a village or rural high school. She completed either a rural teacher-training course of one year in length while a student in high school, or upon graduation from high school enrolled in and completed a one-year professional course in a county rural normal school. (Ninety per cent of the one-room rural teachers of Wisconsin have less than two years of professional training beyond high school.) When she began teaching she was slightly less than nineteen years of age; to-day she is almost twenty-two years old. She will remain in her present school but one year, and her total rural teaching experience will not exceed three years. While

⁶ *Education in Wisconsin*, Biennial Report of State Superintendent for 1926-1928, p. 147.

teaching she receives one visit each year from the county superintendent and four visits from the supervising teacher.

[*The rural teacher of New York.*⁷] The typical rural-school teacher in New York State is a woman between twenty-three and twenty-four years of age and has been teaching between three and four years, having begun this work at the age of nineteen. She is a native-born New Yorker of native-born parents. She comes from a farmer's family, and is one of three or four children in the family. When she entered teaching, her family had an annual income of about \$1,000. She attended an elementary rural school for eight years, and a neighboring high school for four years. During the latter part of her high-school course, she was a member of a teacher-training class, where she reviewed the common-school branches, studied the rudiments of psychology, school law, and school management, observed class-work twice a week for a year in the local elementary schools, made two or three visits to neighboring rural schools, and had ten days of practice-teaching in one of the grades of the local schools.

With this equipment she began her work in a one-teacher rural school. She has had no additional education, either general or professional, since high-school graduation. During her period of teaching she has read at most one professional book. She subscribes to a professional journal which appeals to her because of its simple, concrete suggestions and devices for teaching.

In her school she not only teaches, but does most, if not all, of the janitor's work. She sweeps the floor daily. She may do the scrubbing; in any case the floor of this typical teacher's school is scrubbed about twice a year. The outhouses are scrubbed once a year. She is on the playground with her pupils at recess time almost every day, and frequently takes part in the games. Neither she nor any of the pupils who remain through the noon hour has a hot lunch.

She has a room by herself within a mile of the schoolhouse. The room is heated in winter. She is also free to use the living-room of the house and to entertain callers there. She is likely to assist the housewife in the work of the home to the extent of more than an hour a day. If she lives with her parents, she spends much more time in assisting with the housework. Unless her home is there, she does not often remain in the district over week-ends.

For her teaching during the year 1920-21 she received between \$800

⁷ George A. Works and others, "Rural School Survey of New York State," 1922, p. 66.

and \$850, and she taught nine months. During the summer she is likely to live with her parents and she usually helps with the housework and the lighter farm work. Her necessary living expenses during the school year she estimates at somewhat less than \$300, and she probably saved between \$200 and \$250 during the year in question. She has no one dependent upon her for support, either wholly or partially.

According to the reports of the State Department of Education in New York, the standards have increased since this survey was made so that in 1929 the average rural teacher had one year of professional and academic training beyond high-school graduation. Her salary was increased to \$1,250 or \$1,300.

[*The one-room rural teachers of Ohio.*⁸] The county normal schools are the chief source of supply. For example, of 608 of the 1923 graduates from all Ohio institutions who were appointed to one-room rural schools, 537 were graduates of county normal schools. In other words, only 71 out of 608 trained graduates who entered these rural schools came from any type of institution other than the county normal school. The almost exclusive reliance of the rural schools on the county normal schools is even more striking when we consider the graduates of other years than 1923. In 1922 only 37 trained teachers from other institutions became rural teachers. In 1921 this number was only 23. The first point, then, is, that with their need for 1,300 teachers a year, the rural schools get practically all their trained teachers from the county normal schools.

Roughly speaking, then, we may say that the one-room rural school needs annually about 1,400 teachers, of which perhaps 1,100 will be without experience and 150 will be new to the state service in other ways. It receives from its presumed source of supply about 550, or something like one-half of what it needs. Moreover, it gets only a few additional trained teachers from any other source. In respect, therefore, to the one-room rural school we may unhesitatingly assert that the supply of trained teachers is far less than the demand. Of course, in making this statement, one realizes that the term demand is used somewhat loosely. The real facts undoubtedly are that the demand for trained teachers on the part of the trustees and patrons of one-room rural schools is not much greater than the supply. It is because so many districts are willing to employ persons of inferior preparation that the rural schools are limp-

⁸ B. R. Buckingham, "Supply and Demand in Teacher Training," *Ohio State University Studies*, No. 15, p. 85.

ing along with many untrained teachers in charge of them. The same lack of demand for teaching of quality lies behind the fact that the rural schools, even when supplied with staffs of teachers whom, by courtesy, we are calling trained, are in reality in the keeping of persons with the least possible preparation for the profession.

The rural teacher of Alabama. A report from the State Department of Education in Alabama⁹ pictures the average rural teacher of a typical county in that state: "She is unmarried, 23 years of age; possesses less than two years of education above high-school level; has had 3.8 years of teaching experience, but is new to her teaching job this school session, and teaches seven different subjects, having daily sixteen recitations, each twenty minutes in length."

[*The West Virginia rural teacher.*¹⁰] Of the 7,063 rural schools of the state, 4,937 are one-teacher schools, 1,130 are two- and three-teacher schools, 600 are four- or more-teacher schools, not consolidated, and 396 are consolidated schools. Twenty-five per cent of the number of teachers have a mental age of thirteen years and six months or less. In all probability they are teaching in the rural schools. We assume that this is a condition that has existed for years and is likely to exist. The problem of the school administrator is to decide what is the best thing to do under the existing circumstances. The guidance and direction can come only from efficient superintendents and supervisors that have the interest and insight in education to demand a standard quality of instruction for all pupils within their charge.

Seventy-five per cent of the teachers of one- and two-room schools have completed four years of high school. This percentage reveals a remarkable development since 1922. At that time, about one-half of the elementary teachers of the state had no high-school training at all. The fact that two or three hundred of the rural teachers did not reply to this question suggests that they did not have much high-school training to report. This leaves considerable room for the suspicion that there are still a large number of teachers in the rural schools of the state who do not have any high-school education. We found from the intelligence tests that about 25% made scores below the eighth grade standard. A study of academic preparation seems to point out that the scholastic background and the general intelligence are in close agreement.

⁹ Annual Report of the Department of Education, Alabama, 1929, p. 136.

¹⁰ L. V. Cavins, *A Survey of Education in West Virginia*, Vol. I, 1928, pp. 75, 81.

Median rural teacher in the United States. Miss Mabel Carney¹¹ has pictured the median rural teacher of the United States.

The typical one-room rural teacher of the United States, to-day (1930), is a young woman about twenty-three years of age, of native American stock, and of farm or small-town background. Her preparation includes four years of high-school education, with apparently 12 to 18 weeks of professional training secured frequently in summer sessions or in the graduate year of high-school training classes. She teaches from 20 to 25 children through the eight grades of the elementary curriculum for a school term of 7.8 months, and remains only one or two years in the same school. Her median annual salary is \$761, and her total service in rural schools averages about three years, after which she marries or transfers to grade teaching or continues her education, usually in a state teachers' college.

The curriculum of the rural school. Horace Mann in 1838, writing about the great diversity of studies and classes in the one-teacher school of Massachusetts, said, "They crumble the teacher's time into dust." In his day the curriculum of the elementary school included less than one-half of the subjects and activities required in the present-day rural school. In 1825, reading (including declamation), spelling, writing, manners and morals, arithmetic, grammar, geography, bookkeeping, sewing, and knitting were included in the curriculum. By 1850 the history of the United States and object lessons had been added. Each decade saw additional subjects in the curriculum.

This growth in the number of subjects required in the rural schools is evident in the analysis on page 12 of the common school manuals in Wisconsin.¹²

In the majority of states there is prepared a rather complete syllabus for each subject of the curriculum. These syllabi are prepared usually by members of the state department of education, by committees of superintendents and normal school teachers, and infrequently by subject specialists.

¹¹ *Thirtieth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, p. 160.

¹² Statutory requirements, *Common School Manual of Wisconsin*.

THE SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

GROWTH OF CURRICULUM SUBJECTS IN WISCONSIN

1858	1878	1904	1924
English language	Orthoëpy	Orthoëpy	Language and grammar
English grammar	English grammar	English grammar	
Spelling	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling
Reading	Reading	Reading	Reading
			Literature
Writing	Writing	Writing	Writing
Geography	Geography	Geography	Geography
Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
	U. S. History	U. S. History	U. S. History
	Constitution of U. S. and state	Constitution of U. S. and state	
		Drawing	Drawing
		Physiology and Hygiene	Physiology and Hygiene
		Nature lessons	Nature study
		Agriculture	Agriculture
		Singing	Music
			Manual training
			Hot lunches and Sewing
			Humane treatment of animals
			Accident prevention
			Physical education
			Fire prevention
			Rural sociology

Brim¹³ criticizes the syllabi prepared for the elementary schools of New York State as follows:

¹³ Orville G. Brim, "The Elementary-School Curriculum," in the *Rural School Survey of New York State*, p. 207.

The curriculum for elementary schools has been examined (1) in its printed form, (2) with reference to the use made of it by teachers and district superintendents and their attitudes toward it, and (3) as to the actual curriculum made available to rural pupils from day to day.

With a few exceptions the content of the various syllabi is poorly selected and has small bearing upon child activity now or his later social efficiency. This content is so meager and so formal as to be practically useless to the teacher in rural schools. The methods advised are, again with a few exceptions, too brief to be of service, or woefully out of date. The organization of the material is mainly that of formal outlines or a random collection of unorganized facts. In such organization of materials as we find, no attention has been given to the rural school's problem of many grades. Rural-school conditions have been entirely ignored. The curriculum is entirely lacking in any service to teachers upon the many difficult and significant questions of efficient classroom organization. Moreover, it is a product of many periods and many groups working independently. Taken as a whole, the curriculum is lacking in any fundamental educational philosophy, or any basic psychological principles, or any unity of purpose.

Viewed with reference to its service to teachers and district superintendents, its value is very limited. This group who are most closely associated with the rural-school problem and should have a valuable contribution to make have participated not at all in its construction and are doing but little in the way of construction. To the teacher the curriculum is something to follow. To the superintendent it is something to enforce. The uses they make of it are on the whole as formal as the curriculum itself. It tells them what to teach and when to teach it, what to emphasize and what may be safely neglected. A few go to it for advice on method, such as it is, and a few for new ideas. On the whole, it is not a source of abundant help, if we may judge by the teachers' replies or by examination of the contents of the syllabi.

The situation found in the classroom is even worse. A deadening routine from day to day is the rule. Reciting the contents of textbooks and memorizing facts, often meaningless and useless, in preparation for some examination, is the daily recurrent experience of rural children.

A more recent statement concerning the rural-school curriculum is presented below:¹⁴

¹⁴ *The Status of Rural Education, Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, pp. 112-114.*

State courses of study can be found representing practically every level, from the bare prescription of textbook material to be covered to a type of organization equalling that of superior city courses. The following more detailed statements are based upon examination of practically every state course published in the United States in the last five years—no course cited is dated prior to 1925.

To a notable extent the textbook is still a chief curriculum determiner. One state course, for example, declares specifically: "The elementary course and teachers' manual is as a matter of fact based primarily on the textbooks selected for use in the elementary schools." Another states, "This revision is made necessary because of recent new adoptions of textbooks in some subjects." Several other courses consist of monthly outlines, by pages and by topics, of a specified textbook.

In practically all the courses, as was stated in the first section of this chapter, mastery of information and skills appears to be the dominating aim. Occasionally, the desired items of information are specified to an amazing detail as in a certain state course which prescribes the following: "New Jersey. Simply teach the sentence, 'New Jersey was at first part of New Netherlands, then of New York, then it was purchased by the Quakers, and finally became a separate colony.'" Yet the foreword to teachers in this course states: "The principal feature of the course is the attempt to vitalize the work in each subject." Thus does practice lag behind principle.

It has not been possible to make a sufficiently exhaustive study of state courses of study to determine accurately or completely the nature and extent of their specific adaptations in content or approach to the interests, experiences, and needs characteristic of the state and especially to those of the rural sections and rural children of the state. The investigation that was possible has discovered little of either type, except in the obviously distinctive subject of state history and civics, and to a somewhat less extent in home geography. The general impression received was that the courses are but little better adjusted to specific conditions than are the textbooks, which have been shown practically to constitute the curriculum in many instances.

Some states adapt their courses to the poorly trained teacher and to deficient provision of supervision, by the lock-step device of month-by-month prescription of subject matter to be covered, and by "monthly reviews" or examinations, sent out from the county superintendent's office, to check on the prescribed work. This is specifically stated in one state course, which claims to be "arranged with special reference to the needs of the rural schools," and which prescribes these needs in terms of pupils moving about and teachers frequently changed, fre-

quently untrained, and often having never attended a rural school, so that "without a plan of organization definitely worked out, the schools are in a chaotic condition." A "fixed and definite course" is provided, organized by months, and the schools are tested as just indicated. The monthly review is declared to be "one of the best means" of supervision at the superintendent's command. With the present rapidly rising standards for certification and the present surplus of teachers, it seems worth considering whether other and better means may not be devised of protecting the rural child's educational opportunity.

A common characteristic of rural schools, obviously demanding curriculum adjustment, is the short school term, averaging 156 days for the rural schools of the United States, and frequently no more than six months in many states. Yet not a single state has adjusted its course of study for the six months' school; most states, on the contrary, organize the work upon the length of term common in their city schools.

The equipment of the rural school. Just as the farmer of to-day would be handicapped by having on his farm only the tools, machinery, and means of transportation that were adequate for farming fifty years ago, so many teachers of rural schools are handicapped, because they are supplied with a type of equipment that had to serve many years ago only because it was the best available, but that should not be found in the modern school. The rural-school teacher is expected to do the work that in a graded school is performed by a janitor, a principal, eight grade teachers, a supervisor, and a nurse. The one-teacher school with fewer children has all of the problems found in the larger school.

In no other type of school are children so dependent upon good texts for the knowledge gained. Necessarily the recitation periods are short and the study periods are long, numerous, and unsupervised. Teachers and pupils in such schools actually need more and better equipment than do those in the city school—the most interesting and the best basal texts, a generous supply of supplementary texts, a good collection of library books, and an adequate assortment of educative seatwork material.

Are rural schools adequately supplied with equipment? The writer made an inventory of the equipment of 149 rural schools selected at random in 50 counties in one state. He found that in

87 of the schools all of the desks were of the non-adjustable type; in more than one-half of the schools the map equipment was meager; 29 schools were not provided with globes; seatwork materials were inadequate or lacking in all but 31 schools; 20 schools were still using painted blackboards.

Textbooks were inadequate in number, in poor condition, and not modern. Maps were soiled, dating prior to 1914, on spring rollers or in cases with springs broken, and binding rods lacking. Usually the seatwork material found in the school belonged to the teacher and was the contribution of her hope chest prepared while she was in training in the high school, county rural normal school, or other rural teacher-training course.

The study mentioned above is not, of course, conclusive because of the limited number of schools studied. As a matter of fact we know but little about the equipment of rural schools. In recent years standards have shown distinct improvement. Several states have set up detailed lists of the equipment that should be found in rural schools. New York sets the following standard:

Besides the traditional maps, globe, and dictionary, it lists as "desirable equipment" phonographs; arithmetic practice sets; library equipment, including among other items a reading table, vertical file; library supplies; a library of reference material, general and recreatory reading, periodicals, and supplementary readers; and "a well chosen supply of material for educative seatwork"; and provides an additional list of "other desirable equipment, including hot-lunch equipment (\$20 up); science equipment (\$5 up) and playground equipment (\$15 up)." Doubtless numerous rural schools in New York State will shortly, if not already, be equipped with practically all the materials recommended in this bulletin. Others will possess useful equipment not here listed. One rural county in the state is said to have equipped all its schools with radios, which are to-day found in the schools of other states also in an increasing number, even in one-teacher schools.

It is evident that the type and richness of curriculum possible

in schools thus supplied far exceeds that which can be offered where the only books are the texts in the children's hands, where materials and tools are limited to those that children and teachers can beg, borrow, or purchase with their own funds, and the schoolroom is crowded to the walls with desks and seats. Yet the potentiality, already mentioned, of the rural environment and the rural home life still remains. Curricula for rural schools desirably should be adjusted to all the educational experiences and materials available, whether within or without the school.

Enrollment in the rural schools. Since rural schools are predominantly of the one-teacher type, the enrollment is usually so small that it is difficult to arouse school spirit, that pride in achievement in school and in competitive extracurricular activities that usually characterizes the good school. That the enrollment is small is amply evidenced by an examination of state reports and surveys. The 1928-1930 biennial report of the state superintendent of Wisconsin reports 6,347 rural schools for the year 1929-1930. Of these, 96 enrolled 5 pupils or less; 556 enrolled 6 to 10 pupils; 1,069 enrolled 11 to 15 children; nearly 3,000 schools reported less than 21 pupils enrolled. This represents a condition better than the average. The average enrollment in the rural schools of South Dakota (1929-1930) was 15; Colorado (1929-1930) 15; the average enrollment for one-teacher schools of the entire country is less than 20.

Studies by Cavins,¹⁵ Covert,¹⁶ Haggerty,¹⁷ Kruse,¹⁸ Van Wagenen,¹⁹ and others indicate that the achievement of pupils in small ungraded rural schools is inferior to that of pupils in graded

¹⁵ L. V. Cavins, *Survey of Education in West Virginia*, Vol. II, "Educational Achievement," 1928.

¹⁶ Timon Covert, "Educational Achievement of the One-Teacher and of Larger Rural Schools," *U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin*, No. 15, 1928.

¹⁷ M. E. Haggerty, *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. VI, "Educational Achievement," 1922.

¹⁸ Paul Kruse, *Texas Educational Survey Report*, Vol. IV, "Educational Achievement," 1925.

¹⁹ M. J. Van Wagenen, *Comparative Pupil Achievement in Rural, Town, and City Schools*, 1929.

schools of larger size. This is, undoubtedly, the result of numerous conditions, the small pupil enrollment, however, being an important factor.

Length of the school year. In addition to the handicaps presented above, the rural child is not given a school year comparable to the urban child. Many schools run but six months. Comparable figures for a few states give the following data for the number of days in the school year in urban and rural communities.

State	Rural	Urban
North Carolina	140	178
Virginia	156	181
Indiana	155	180
Tennessee	148	175
South Dakota	163	175
Colorado	168	181
Wisconsin	175	181

The average length of the school year for rural schools in the United States is 156 days.

Again we have a conditioning factor the importance of which cannot be measured accurately. According to Kruse "there is evidence that the pupils in the schools of longer terms are more able than the pupils in schools of short terms." Van Wagenen has found that pupils in nine-month schools record higher achievement than pupils in eight-month schools. Osborn found the same thing true for Wisconsin. One must be very cautious, of course, in drawing conclusions from the studies cited. In such investigations it is exceedingly difficult to isolate and measure conditioning factors. Such evidence as is available points definitely to the short term rural school as an educational handicap to the rural pupil.

The rural-school building. The typical rural-school building has frequently been dubbed "a knowledge box." During pioneer days, a sod house, a log cabin, or a small rectangular frame struc-

ture with two or three windows on each side was considered adequate for "school keeping." Architecturally, urban schoolhouse construction has been revolutionized during the last quarter-century. The buildings have been constructed to care for the health needs of pupils, their educational and physical growth, and the expanding and enriched curriculum. This is not equally true of rural schoolhouses except where consolidations have taken place. True, sod schoolhouses and log cabins are infrequently found. Stucco and brick are often used as materials of construction. In structure, lack of educational facilities, equipment, and failure to meet the physical needs of children, with many honorable exceptions, the rural-school building of to-day bears a striking family resemblance to its pioneer progenitor.

In 1924 a survey was made of 350 rural-school buildings in four counties in Wisconsin. In 1925 a fifth county containing 117 school buildings was surveyed. Each rural-school building was evaluated by three trained surveyors using the Wisconsin Rural School Score Card. The conclusions of the surveyors follow:²⁰

Four counties were selected—Walworth, Door, Portage and Bayfield—representative of the various geographical and economic regions of the state. Walworth is wealthy, thickly settled, and representative of the best farming and dairying belt in Wisconsin. Door County represents the lake counties, is of average wealth and density of population. Portage and Bayfield have been more recently settled, the population is more scattered, and the land is less productive.

Walworth County with its greater wealth lags behind the average in rural-school building development. This is explained as a deliberate decision to defer a building program until the feasibility of consolidation has been thoroughly discussed and tried out in other similar localities. Door County has gone ahead with a program of consolidation and new building construction. Slow progress has been made in Bayfield and Portage Counties, explainable by economic conditions.

The total scores indicate the general efficiency of the school plants. Each school building in each county, with a few unavoidable exceptions, was scored independently by three trained surveyors whose scores

²⁰ H. W. Schmidt and J. T. Giles, *A Rural School Survey in Wisconsin* (The Wisconsin Teachers' Association, 1925).

were combined item by item for a summary score. These scores show a median educational efficiency for the 350 school buildings surveyed of 48.5 per cent. One-fourth of the school plants were below 43.6 per cent and one-fourth above 54.8 per cent. The median for Door County was 55.8 per cent.

Of the six major items on the score card the standards for site were most nearly realized. The median for this item was 80 per cent. Many schools are now poorly located due to shifting population, or changing district boundaries, and some should be moved. The surroundings of rural-school buildings are as a rule satisfactory so far as safety, sanitation, and general pleasing effect are concerned. Considerations of personal influence and economy of outlay often prevail against the standards that should govern in the selection of school sites. Esthetic standards are most often violated.

Drainage in some regions is a difficult problem and has not been successfully met. The size, form, and condition of school grounds do not fulfill the needs of the modern school for playground facilities. A satisfactory program of physical education in rural schools will be hampered by these conditions. School yards lack capacity and are too often square.

Building construction scores considerably lower than site. Many buildings face north rather than south, and the orientation of the classroom has not received careful consideration. Play space has not been conserved by the grouping of buildings in one corner of a rectangular lot. The typical material used in building construction is wood. Architectural style and balance are lacking. Walls are not well built for protection from the weather and the foundations are often defective in the same respect. Entrances are exposed, especially the steps, and the entire aspect of the buildings and grounds reflects a lack of community pride and satisfaction in the school plant.

The interior construction of the building is even less efficient educationally than the exterior. Classrooms are often too wide, requiring cross lighting. An originally rectangular room has often been made square by partitioning off a part of the end for cloakrooms. Floors are usually in good condition but not sufficiently weatherproof to protect from air currents below. Windows are about 50 per cent efficient, being poorly located and insufficient in number and size. The natural lighting of the classroom is therefore deficient. Blackboards are of good quality but badly placed. Bulletin boards and closets are lacking. Decoration is not in good taste. Cloakrooms, if separate from the classroom, are not well ventilated or heated. A small percentage of schools have basements.

The heating unit of the typical rural school is a jacketed stove. This

is a great improvement over the box stove but inferior to the furnace or steam plant. It is less than 50 per cent efficient as a heating and ventilating device. In very cold weather the air in most rural schools approaches desert dryness for lack of suitable humidifying equipment. The entire problem of heating and ventilating school buildings needs further study both as to aims and means of attainment.

Rural-school buildings are inadequately supplied with fire protection. Very few have fire-resisting construction and practically none are equipped with fire extinguishers.

Primitive facilities for water supply in most schools menace the health of pupils because of unsanitary and untested sources and because facilities for drinking are not convenient and attractive. Very few schools are supplied with modern distributing systems and sanitary bubbling fountains.

Toilet facilities are also primitive and unsanitary. The typical outdoor privy lacks proper seclusion and privacy. It is not well kept and properly protected from flies. The only satisfactory solution of this problem is the indoor toilet.

Artificial lighting is supplied by a few oil lamps which are useless for school purposes and furnish a fire hazard for the building. There is a great need for the installation of suitable pressure lamps to supplement the inadequate window lighting on dark days.

The rural-school plant is particularly lacking in those accessory rooms which contribute so much to the educational efficiency and satisfaction of the modern city school. A library, a teacher's room, a play room, and a kitchen are not luxuries in a school any longer; they are necessities if the aims of the newer education are to be realized. Storage rooms are insufficient not only in rural schools but in nearly all school buildings. Fuel rooms are usually outside but are often attached. Many of them are inadequate in size.

The equipment of these rural schools including desks and other furniture, instructional equipment, physical-education facilities, and miscellaneous items is remarkably standardized in the number and quality of items found. Sufficient care is not taken to keep them in good order and up-to-date. Physical-education equipment in particular is needed. Modern instructional equipment is also lacking. Equipment scores only slightly higher than the total average for the school plant.

A similar survey was made of 1,438 one-teacher, 77 two-teacher, 31 three- to four-teacher, 70 five- to nine-teacher, and 41 ten-or-more-teacher school buildings in New York State in 1921 by

A.C.E.R.T. West Seagun

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J. E. Butterworth of Cornell University.²¹ A summary of the one-teacher schools follows:

In a community having an average schoolhouse (and the one-teacher buildings are strikingly uniform, half of them having a score between 543 plus 4 and 674 plus 23), this is about what will be found. It is a rectangular affair, which has been called, and justly so, the "box car" type. If it is compared with the average home of the neighborhood, it is by contrast singularly unattractive. Of all the one-teacher buildings, 95 per cent are of this type. The building is usually in need of paint.

The grounds contain only 47 square rods—a little over one-quarter of an acre—so that when the pupils play their running games, the road or a neighbor's field must be utilized. A full acre is a reasonable space, in order to give room for the building, for trees and shrubbery, and for such games and play apparatus as elementary children delight in. But only 10 per cent of the schools have this amount of ground, while over 12 per cent have not over one-eighth of an acre. There is, however, one redeeming feature about the grounds—they have plenty of trees. In fact, sometimes there are so many and they are so large that they shade the building, cutting off some of the light. But the yard is not otherwise attractive. Ashes or other rubbish are likely to be found in front of the schoolhouse. There is no lawn, no shrubbery, no flowers to give the place something of an attractive, homelike atmosphere.

The suggestion of the whole plant is that it is a place where children may find shelter—not a place reflecting . . . that here is where children spend six hours a day, one hundred and eighty days to the year, for eight years of the most impressionable part of their lives.

The typical school does not have enough window area to give sufficient light. Modern standards say that in this latitude the glass area should be not less than one-fifth the size of the floor, and where there is considerable shade, the proportions should be one-fourth. The typical school has a glass area that is only one-seventh the floor area. Only 19 out of each 100 schools meet the standards, while in 11 out of each 100 the ratio is one-tenth and in a few cases it runs as low as one-fifteenth and one-eighteenth. In addition to this, 86 out of each 100 schools have shades of so dark a color that the light is practically shut out when the shade is down. If the color were gray or tan, or something similar, the direct rays of the sun would be shut out, but light could still come through.

In New York 10 per cent of the one-teacher schools have windows

²¹ *Survey of New York State Rural Schools*, Vol. I, p. 129.

on all four sides; 56 per cent have them on three sides; 31 per cent on two sides; while only 3 per cent have what is accepted as a desirable standard—windows on the pupil's left only.

The color scheme of the walls affects both the amount of light and its quality. If the walls are dark, too much light is absorbed; if pure white, a glare is likely to result. Only one-third of the schools have a color scheme that is satisfactory in this respect.

In the typical school we find the ordinary stove that radiates heat directly, so that when pupils in the far parts of the room are comfortable, those near the stove are too hot. These pupils are not only uncomfortable, but, when they go outdoors, they are much more likely to catch cold. Of each 100 one-teacher schools, 85 have stoves of this kind.

Children frequently develop slight illnesses at school or in their play receive minor cuts or bruises. A first-aid outfit that will enable the teacher to attend to such cases at once can be supplied for about four dollars. Only 10 per cent of the schools have such an outfit, and practically all these are in six supervisory districts. It is interesting to know that in a few of these districts practically every school is supplied with such an outfit.

Of the schools, 89 per cent are seated with a type of desk that cannot be adjusted to the needs of the pupils. This difficulty can be met fairly well if enough sizes are furnished so that each pupil may have a seat that will enable him to sit upright with his feet squarely on the floor and a desk on which he can write comfortably when in an upright position. Not always is there a sufficient number of desks of different sizes however. This is shown by the fact that in 18 per cent of the schools one-half or more of the seats are not properly adjusted to the pupils, and in 20 per cent of the schools one-half or more of the desks are not properly adjusted.

A good blackboard is of importance in the classroom activities. Yet 34 per cent of the schools have painted boards. These are quite unsatisfactory, for the reason that the paint soon wears off, the board becomes smooth and glossy so that it is difficult to write on, and the individual pieces of lumber of which it is composed draw apart, leaving unsightly cracks that interfere with the writing. Fortunately, only 2 per cent of the schools have painted plaster. Where used, the plaster is likely to crack and fall off, and when repaired, causes an uneven surface. Forty-seven per cent have either slate or composition.

Unless this average school of which we have been speaking is unusual in this respect, it has no playground apparatus of any kind. Out of each 100, 84 belong to this group. The other 16 per cent have one

or more pieces, such as swings, teeter board, volley ball and net, horizontal bar, quoits, football, boxing gloves, jumping pole.

A recent survey of the rural schools of Texas²² presents the following picture:

Fifty per cent of the one-teacher buildings were of the shoe-box type. Thirty-two per cent had a cottage type roof. Sixty-eight per cent of the two-teacher buildings had a desirable appearance, 19 per cent did not. Seventy-six per cent of the three- and four-teacher buildings were desirable and pleasing in appearance, and 10 per cent were not.

Of the 78 one-teacher buildings, the foundation consisted of wood posts in 38, of stone in 25, of concrete in 13, and of brick in two. Thirty-three, or 42 per cent, of the one-teacher buildings had a vestibule. In 22 schools it was well lighted. . . . Seventy-four per cent of the two-teacher schools had a vestibule. Thirty-nine per cent of the one-teacher, and 21 per cent of the two-teacher schools used nails or hooks on the classroom walls for wraps. . . . Seventy-eight per cent of the one-teacher schools and 47 per cent of the two-teacher schools had no fuel room. . . . Only 12 per cent of the classrooms in the one-teacher white schools, 35 per cent in the two-teacher, 35.5 per cent in the three- and four-teacher schools had the windows properly placed. . . . Thirty-four per cent of the rooms in the one-teacher schools, 56 per cent in the two-teacher, 70 per cent in the three- and four-teacher schools had the amount of glass area required by law. . . . Two kinds of heating plants were found in these schools—the unjacketed or box stove and the jacketed stove. Only 30 per cent of the rooms in the three- and four-teacher schools were so equipped.

In Arizona, where the rural-school plant is new (three-fourths of the buildings having been erected within the past fifteen years), one would expect modern rural-school buildings. A recent report pictures them as follows:²³

Four-fifths of the rural school buildings are of the traditional box type. Fifty per cent of them contain one room. In the remainder any extra space is devoted to storage or hallways. Twenty-eight per cent have no cloakrooms of any kind. Twenty-nine per cent have basements. These are usually in the newer buildings of more than one room.

²² George A. Works, *Texas Educational Survey Report*, 1925, Ch. xviii.

²³ Ralph Tupper, *A Survey of the Arizona Public-School System*, 1925, p. 63.

Frame construction is the prevailing type with 43 per cent of the total. Adobe comes next with 18 per cent; brick, 15 per cent; concrete, 11 per cent; log, 9 per cent; and stone, 4 per cent.

Heating is secured mainly by means of the common stove, and in 75 per cent of the schools these stoves are unjacketed. Fourteen per cent have jacketed stoves, and 11 per cent use furnaces.

Window ventilation is the rule, and in only 15 per cent of the buildings do we find special ducts for this purpose.

Thirty-six per cent of the schools do not have enough blackboards; 77 per cent of the boards are too high. The composition of the boards varies as follows:

Fifty-four per cent are composition.

Twenty-two per cent are painted boards.

Nineteen per cent are slate.

Five per cent are cloth.

The majority of the desks are of the fixed type, being screwed to the floor or to skids. Two sizes predominate. . . . Nineteen per cent of the desks are adjustable and 19 per cent are of the old double-desk type.

Many of the schools lack special items of equipment as follows: Chairs are lacking in 44 per cent of the schools, teachers' chairs in 20 per cent, teacher's desks in 3 per cent, tables in 39 per cent, maps in 10 per cent, flags in 7 per cent, flagpoles in 39 per cent, thermometers in 52 per cent, clocks in 22 per cent, bulletin boards in 85 per cent, recitation seats in 62 per cent, globes in 78 per cent, piano in 69 per cent, and phonographs in 64 per cent.

A study of the annual and biennial reports of state superintendents indicates that while in some states notable progress has been made in providing modern rural-school buildings, the reports presented above are typical for the country at large. The pictures are not attractive. They indicate another educational handicap for the rural child. Many of the unfavorable conditions are now in the process of being changed. The problem faces the county superintendent and the rural supervisor.

The material handicap of the rural child is well stated in a recent report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of North Carolina:²⁴

²⁴ Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of North Carolina, 1925-26, pp. 41-42.

If we take the average of all the rural schools and set it over against the average in all the city schools, we will see that there is a great gulf fixed between them. The following comparison of the city school with the rural school includes all the children of the white race—both elementary and high-school pupils—who were enrolled in school for the year 1925-26.

a. Difference in length of term

Average term in days—City	177.6
Average term in days—Rural	139.6

This is a difference of 38 days a year. If we consider the school period as eleven years, this will make a total difference of 418 days in the time that a child can go to school. The actual difference in educational opportunity in my opinion is far greater than the difference indicated by the number of days the schools were in session. While a wide gap is shown here, we may be encouraged by the fact that the opening is being gradually closed. In 25 years the rural schools have added 60 days to the term while the cities have added five. The proposed eight months term would close the gap still further.

b. Difference in training of teachers

Average training of teachers—City	3.00 years college
Average training of teachers—Rural	1.36 years college

In any system of education, the teacher is the center of things. All other school expenditure goes for naught if the teacher fails. Additional training should increase her efficiency. City teachers have almost 2 years of college work more than rural teachers.

c. Difference in value of school property

Average investment per child—City	\$250.00
Average investment per child—Rural	95.00

The city child is more comfortably housed.

d. Difference in high school enrollment

Per cent of total enrollment in high school—City	21%
Per cent of total enrollment in high school—Rural	10%

If we apply this difference of 11 per cent to the total rural enrollment of 427,755 we find that 47,053 additional high-school pupils must be added before the rural school equals the city school in this respect. The ratio of the high-school enrollment to the total enrollment is a fine test of the way in which the schools are functioning. Rural children will go to high school in excess of 21% when the opportunity is offered, as is shown by the facts in Pamlico County.

e. Difference in per cent of attendance

Per cent of attendance—City	82.3%
Per cent of attendance—Rural	75.0%

The large school in the country has a better attendance than the small school. The same rule seems to apply also in the attendance of the larger city school.

Many other qualities might be set up to show that these differences in educational opportunity run all through the system. These same inequalities are shown when one county is set over against another, or when one district in a county is compared with another district within the same county. We need a great leveling agency, not one to level down from the top, but one to build up from the bottom.

Such a report would apply with equal force to many of our states. The rural child attends school in a box-shaped building, poorly constructed, poorly ventilated, poorly equipped. His school year is scarcely eight months in length and he attends three-fourths of this time. An inadequately trained teacher, new each year, directs his educational efforts while she is, at the same time, endeavoring to give attention to other children in every grade from the first to the eighth. School books are old, teaching equipment is meager, and class rivalry is dulled by lack of numbers. Rural supervision is not a panacea for this condition; nevertheless, carefully controlled experiments prove that it can do a great deal. If we cannot bring rural children to better schools, we can by means of well directed supervision guarantee better teaching for rural children.

Summary. The quotation on pages 26-27 taken from the *Bienial Report (1925-26) of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of North Carolina* might well constitute a summary of this

chapter. It has presented a picture of the American rural school inadequately housed, meagerly equipped, poorly attended, with a short school year. It has described the typical rural teacher, immature, inadequately trained, itinerant. The rigidly prescribed, inexpertly applied, and impoverished curriculum of the rural school has been described.

The concerns of rural supervision are clear.

- a. An effective supervisory organization developed to meet the conditioning factors of the rural school system
- b. The time of teacher, pupils, and supervisor properly budgeted and effectively planned in order to realize educationally valuable objectives
- c. A fact basis for supervisory procedures
- d. Promotion of the professional growth of teachers
- e. Objective evaluation both of teaching and of supervisory procedure.

These major concerns of the supervisor determine the sectional organization of this volume.

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CHAPTER II

THE ORGANIZATION OF RURAL SUPERVISION

A. FACTORS OF ORGANIZATION

The professional responsibilities of urban and rural supervisors. Attention has been called in Chapter I to the fact that the fundamental principles and standards of supervision are alike for city and country. In both situations we have a group of children each of whom is to be treated as an individual and as an end. The purpose of the entire educational structure—physical, administrative, supervisory, instructional—is to enrich the life of each individual of the school group and to guide and promote his mental, physical, cultural, social, and spiritual growth. In each situation—urban and rural—the teacher is responsible for the guidance and growth of the individual pupils of her group; the supervisor is responsible for helping and guiding the teacher in order that high levels of teaching may be attained.

Situations that modify supervisory procedures. Although the functions of supervisors are very much the same in both urban and rural districts, certain situations exist in the open country that make necessary decided modifications of any acceptable organization plan of urban supervision. Chapter I presented one group of such situations. The second group to be discussed in the first section of this chapter relates more definitely to factors conditioning rural supervision and administration. This group includes such factors as the geographical area of the administrative unit; road conditions; the number, types, and distribution of rural schools included in a supervisory unit; the number of teachers in a supervisory unit; and the number and types of supervisory agents.

It is obvious, of course, that the supervisor who must travel fifty miles a day over both paved highways and dirt roads, visiting five or six times a year one hundred teachers, scattered over an area of 1,500 square miles, must make some modifications in supervisory procedure that are not necessary for one who visits teachers in the average compact urban area.

The geographical unit of rural supervision. In the majority of states the prevailing unit of rural supervision is the entire county. Notable exceptions to this are found in some of the eastern states. In New York the supervisory district consists of a group of towns associated together for purposes of school supervision. The district superintendent is the chief supervisory officer. These supervisory districts vary in area from 50 square miles to more than 1,500, the average district being about 250 square miles in area.

In New England the town is the chief unit of administration. In order to secure a unit sufficiently large to support a plan of supervision, towns combine to employ superintendents and other supervisory officers. The superintendent is the chief administrative educational officer of each town in the union. About two-thirds of the towns in Massachusetts, for example, are grouped into 79 superintendency unions with an average area of 62 square miles and from 20 to 53 teachers in each union.

In a few states, because of the sparseness of population, several counties are combined into one supervisory unit. This is true of a number of counties in Virginia, Texas, and in Nevada. With a few exceptions such as these, the typical unit for rural school supervision is a single county, this being true of forty of the forty-eight states.

The trend of development in the United States is in the direction of the county as the administrative rural school unit. One may venture a guess that within the next fifty years present school district lines will be abolished except possibly for attendance purposes. Many rural schools will be closed, consolidations will make possible direct local supervision by principals, and the

county rural supervisor will work with principals, acting as a research director and consulting expert.

The average area of the supervisory unit for 40 states is 1,672 square miles. An Alabama county superintendent in outlining his supervisory problem in terms of geography states that, whereas the area of the average county of his state is less than 800 square miles, the area of his own county is nearly 1,500 square miles. The distance from the northern border to the southern border is 50 miles; the average distance of 92 white schools from the county seat is 20 miles; and the average distance necessary to be traveled per day in visiting two schools is 50 miles.

The necessity of supervising schools scattered over an area of from 50 to 5,000 square miles presents a situation in rural-school supervision not comparable to any found in urban schools. It makes impossible the intensive type of supervision with pre-teaching conferences and personal follow-up visits that characterizes many of our urban supervisory programs. Not only the supervisory area but the number of teachers to be supervised accentuates this difficulty. This becomes apparent when one examines the table on page 32.

It must be kept in mind, however, that in some states, such as Maryland and Connecticut, the number of teachers for each supervisor has been kept sufficiently low so that conditions approximating those in urban districts are maintained. Monthly visits by supervisors are made to each teacher.

The location, number, and type of schools as factors in the organization of rural supervision. The large territory under the jurisdiction of the county or district superintendent presents a problem relative to the location, number, and types of schools that he must organize for supervision. These schools are usually several miles apart. Some states fix the minimum distance by statute. Georgia requires that these rural schools shall be at least three miles apart. Other states provide for the closing of schools when the enrollment falls below ten or twelve pupils.

The superintendent has to deal with the problem of reaching

TABLE I.*—NUMBER OF TEACHERS PER SUPERVISOR DURING 1926-27 †

STATE	NUMBER OF TEACHERS PER SUPERVISOR		
	Minimum	Median	Maximum
1	2	3	4
Alabama	30	109	390
California	25	105	243
Connecticut	19	37	49
Delaware	68	84	87
Florida	20	64	500
Louisiana	26	85	220
Maryland	29	60	82
Michigan	46	48	56
Minnesota	33	66	66‡
New Jersey	23	42	88
North Carolina	55	126	307
North Dakota	112	159	238
Ohio	21	99	309
Pennsylvania	130	203	356
Tennessee	91	120	218
Utah	23	71	80
Virginia	20	49	160
West Virginia	13	71	243
Wisconsin	34	97	267

* Annie Reynolds. "Supervision and Rural School Improvement," *U. S. Office of Education Bulletin*, No. 31, 1930, p. 5.

† Figures in Table I, indicating number of teachers supervised for Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, Maryland, New Jersey, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin, are based upon state reports for all supervisors employed; from Ohio upon estimates derived from state reports. Figures indicating numbers of teachers supervised for the remaining states, based upon information in replies received from supervisors giving this information, are: California, 18; Michigan, 4; Minnesota, 6; North Dakota, 7; Tennessee, 5; Utah, 7.

‡ Four of the five Minnesota supervisors reported were from St. Louis County. The fifth supervisor in this county did not reply. As each of the four gave 330 teachers as the number supervised and each devotes attention to improvement of instruction in only two subjects, it is assumed that the fifth also supervised 330 teachers in certain subjects. In order that the Minnesota figures might be comparable with the others, each supervisor is credited with a supervisory load of one-fifth of 330, or 66 teachers.

widely scattered schools over roads varying from mud wallows to concrete highways.

His schools vary in number and type. Only a few counties in the United States have no one-room rural schools. Cook and

Monahan¹ give the average number of one-room rural schools per county in 40 states as 65. The writer listed the number for 285 counties in 44 states and found the average to be 55. The latter figure included some districts in the New England states when the county is not the unit.

In addition to the one-room schools the superintendent has a number of two- and three-room rural schools under his supervision. The median number for 361 county and district superintendencies in 44 states is 5. During the past few years consolidation has lessened the number of these small rural schools so that there are on the average in each county five consolidated schools maintaining elementary and high-school departments under the immediate supervision of a principal but under the general supervision of the county or district superintendent. In addition to the schools enumerated above, he has elementary schools of from four to ten teachers, union, district, village and city high schools, each of these under the immediate supervision of a building principal. The statement is made that the average number of school buildings per county under the supervision of the county superintendents in the 40 states with county supervision is 84.²

A summary of the county superintendent's supervisory problem. If one were to paint a composite word picture of the supervisory task of the county superintendent in terms of the conditioning factors discussed up to this point, it would read something like this: He has general supervision over 84 schools, 65 of which are one-teacher schools; 5 are two- and three-teacher schools; 5 are consolidated schools, 4 of which maintain both elementary and high-school departments; 5 are large elementary schools; and 4 are high schools. These schools are distributed over an area of 1,500 square miles, some being located on surfaced roads, but many located on relatively unimproved highways. Most of them are in the open country. These schools are taught by teachers un-

¹ Cook and Monahan, "Rural School Supervision," *Bureau of Education Bulletin*, No. 48, 1916, p. 32.

² Cook and Monahan, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

der twenty-one years of age, half of whom move to a different vicinity each year, and a fourth of whom are wholly inexperienced. The teachers in the one-room rural schools have an academic education equivalent to high-school graduation, with an additional year of professional training, and those in charge of village schools have had two years of preparation beyond high school. The typical school is a one-room country school offering eight grades of work in fifteen distinct subjects and is in session for eight or eight and one-half months. This is the situation for which the county superintendent must develop a supervisory organization.

B. TYPES OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION IN VARIOUS STATES

The unit of administration. The staff available for rural-school supervision varies greatly in number among the states. Since the number of supervisory officers, their field of work, and the amount of time available for actual supervision are important factors in determining the most effective organization for any given county, union, or district, it is of value at this time to present the situation for the country at large as summarized by Sherwood.³

All the states outside of New England, except New York, Nevada and Delaware, are organized for rural supervision on a county basis, and the chief responsibility for it rests on the county superintendent. In eleven states the county is the principal unit of rural-school administration as well as the unit of rural-school supervision. In these, the county superintendent is the executive head of the county system. In twenty-eight states, while most of the administrative control of the rural schools rests in the township or district, various administrative and clerical duties are delegated to the county superintendent. Under either of these types of county organization the superintendent is occupied so largely with administrative and clerical duties that his time for supervision of actual school work is inadequate. Furthermore, the county superintendent is not always qualified by training to perform the duty of supervision. He is often a

³ H. Noble Sherwood, "Value of Rural School Supervision," *Educational Bulletin*, No. 84 (Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 1926), pp. 22-28.

political officer, elected by the people as much for certain personal qualities as for his professional qualifications. This is true especially in those states in which the local control of the schools is divided between counties and townships or districts. Since the standards for the office are low, and the salary small, the office does not attract the most capable workers.

Irrespective of the type of local organization, it is increasingly apparent that the local superintendent, responsible both for administration and supervision, cannot satisfactorily supervise the rural schools. Some states have endeavored to remedy the situation by employing additional supervisors who devote all their time to this work.

The number of supervisory officers. In order to present a somewhat complete picture of rural supervision as it exists to-day (1931), certain statistical data are necessary. It must be kept in mind that the growth of rural supervision has been relatively slow. It has taken nearly a quarter-century to bring about the situation presented in the table on page 36. This has been in part due to the fact that the county has been a relatively weak unit of control. The municipality and the state have far outstripped the county in organization, except in the south and to some extent in the far west. Thirty states have made some provision for rural supervision. In these states only 516 out of 2,122 counties have done anything. Seventy-five per cent of the counties in these states have as yet made no provision at all for rural supervision. The data in the table present the situation in 1930 and represent an increase of 144 supervisory officers since the year 1927-28.

Table II gives the names of states in which rural school supervisors are employed, and the number of school supervisors in each state followed by the percentages and the total number of counties supervised in each state.

The word supervisor in this table is limited to persons who give at least one-half time to the supervision of elementary instruction, not including principals. Special supervisors of music, art, and the like are excluded. Assistant superintendents whose work is mainly supervisory are included.

The table shows that in thirty states some provision for local supervision of rural schools has been made. In three states—Wis-

TABLE II.—NUMBER OF SUPERVISORS AND DISTRIBUTION BY STATES AND COUNTIES, 1930 *

States in which supervisors are employed	Number of supervisors in each state	Number of counties in which supervisors are employed	Total number of counties in state	Per cent of counties supervised
1	2	3	4	5
Alabama	53	49	67	73.1
Arkansas	6	6	75	8.0
California	160†	52	57¶	91.0
Connecticut	28‡
Delaware	7	3	3	100.0
Florida	10	10	67	14.7
Georgia 	2	1	161	0.6
Illinois	8	3	102	2.9
Indiana	1	1	92	1.1
Louisiana	24	17	64	26.5
Maryland	57	23	23	100.0
Michigan	10	4	83	4.8
Minnesota	12	3	87	3.5
Mississippi	7	7	82	8.4
New Jersey	46	18	21	85.7
New York	1§
North Carolina	32	32	100	32.0
North Dakota	11	11	53	20.7
Ohio	70	35	87	40.3
Oklahoma	3	3	77	3.9
Oregon	3	3	36	8.3
Pennsylvania	103	55	66	83.3
South Carolina	7	3	46	6.5
South Dakota	1	1	68	1.4
Tennessee	11	10	95	10.5
Texas	19	13	254	5.1
Utah	20	17	29	55.1
Virginia	51	37	100	37.0
West Virginia	73	23	55	41.8
Wisconsin	109	71	71	100.0
Total	945	516	2,122

* Annie Reynolds. "Supervision and Rural School Improvement," *U. S. Office of Education Bulletin*, No. 31, 1930, p. 4.

† Includes 24 supervisors of attendance, 42 supervisors of special subjects, and 6 part-time supervisors.

‡ Supervisors employed by state and under state supervision.

§ District rather than county is the unit of supervision.

|| Reports for 1930 from Georgia and South Dakota not available; 1928 data used.

¶ Not including the city and county of San Francisco.

consin, Delaware, and Maryland⁴—rural-school supervision is statewide. In three states⁵—California, New Jersey, and Connecticut—it is practically statewide.

In thirteen states—Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, Washington, and Wyoming—no county supervisors are employed.

The New England states, with the exception of Connecticut, are not included in the table. Both rural and city schools within the town (the supervisory unit) are under the supervision of the same supervisory officer.

State provisions for rural supervisors. An analysis of the table on page 36 makes clear the fact that some of the states have developed a policy with regard to rural supervision. This policy is expressed in terms of the unit of organization, professional and academic requirements for supervisors, salaries, state financial support of supervision, and so on. Although it is not necessary to discuss these provisions for each state, an analysis of the policy of certain of our states will present the essential differences that have developed in the establishment of rural supervision. This analysis is taken from a study of rural supervision reported by State Superintendent H. Noble Sherwood⁶ of Indiana:

[*Rural supervision in Maryland.*] Maryland has an effective county school organization. A small county board of education is at the head of the system. It appoints the county superintendent as its executive officer, and, through him, runs all the schools of the county. All local school support comes from county taxes or other county school funds.

⁴ In Maryland one county was reported temporarily without a supervisor for the elementary grades.

⁵ In California supervisors are employed in practically all counties in which the school population justifies assistants to the county superintendents. In the three New Jersey counties without supervision, practically all schools are supervised by city superintendents or supervising principals. In Connecticut practically all rural schools are supervised by state supervisory agents assigned to local units, each composed of two towns or more.

⁶ H. Noble Sherwood, "Value of Rural Supervision," *Indiana State Department of Education Bulletin*, No. 84, 1926, p. 25.

The state is fully committed to the policy of employing full-time supervisors. Counties having less than 80 white teachers must, under the law, employ one supervisor; between 80 and 120 white teachers, two supervisors; between 120 and 160 white teachers, three supervisors; and counties having more than 160 white teachers must employ a supervisor for each additional 50 teachers. Forty-seven supervisors are now employed in the 23 counties. Seventeen work exclusively in rural schools, 15 in both rural and graded schools, and the remaining 15 work only in graded schools.

Supervisors or helping teachers are appointed by the county board upon nomination of the county superintendent. Their appointment must have the written approval of the state superintendent of schools and they must hold a certificate from the state department of education. To obtain the highest grade of supervisor's certificate the applicant must have the following training and experience:

"Graduates of a two years' standard normal school, or who have had the equivalent in scholastic preparation; who have completed in addition two full years' academic work at a standard college or university, not less than one-half of which has been in academic branches related to the elementary school and the remaining one-half in advanced elementary-school methods and supervision, or who have had the equivalent in scholastic preparation, and who have had four years of teaching experience in elementary schools. Such a certificate may also be granted to persons who are graduates of a four years' course of a standard college or university, who have completed one full year's work at a recognized college or university in education, including elementary-school methods and supervision, and who have had four years' teaching experience in elementary school."

The state pays two-thirds of the salary and the county one-third of the salary and all other expenses of each supervisor.

[*Rural supervision in California.*] The method of supporting rural-school supervision in California illustrates a type of procedure followed by states in which local control is divided between a county school and a district school organization. Separate districts are organized for elementary schools and for high schools, and the duty of appointing teachers and many other important administrative duties are placed in the hands of local school-district trustees. The general responsibility for coördinating and supervising the schools of the different districts rests chiefly upon the county superintendent, who is elected by popular vote. Funds for the support of the schools come from the state, the county, and the district,

in about the following proportions: 32 per cent, 40 per cent, and 28 per cent, respectively.

The law of 1921 provides that each elementary district that has 300 or more pupils in average attendance shall receive an allotment of \$1,400 for each 300 pupils in average attendance, which sum may be used for supervision; and that the rest of the county outside of these large districts shall receive an extra allowance of \$1,400 for each 500 pupils in average attendance. This latter apportionment is the basis of the rural-school supervision fund. It may be used at the discretion of the county superintendent for any type of supervision, and, under certain circumstances, for other purposes.

Under the provisions of this law, at the present time 39 of the 58 counties in the state employ a total of 61 supervisors who devote themselves to rural supervision.

These supervisors work under the direction of the county superintendent and are selected by him. They must possess a teachers' certificate authorizing them to teach in the public schools in which they are to supervise, and they must meet such special and professional requirements as may be prescribed by the state board of education.

[*Rural supervision in Connecticut.*] Connecticut undertook rural-school supervision in 1903. At that time it was provided by law that the State Board of Education should appoint rural school supervisors, upon petition of school committees or town meetings, in those towns which had 30 teachers or less (later changed to 25 teachers), and that the state should bear a part of the expense. It was not, however, until 1907, when the state assumed the whole expense of supervision, that an appreciable number of towns took advantage of the opportunity offered them to secure supervision.

At present nearly all the towns eligible under the law have supervision. There are 29 full-time and 3 part-time supervisors in the state, serving about 90 towns. These supervisors, although paid by the state, when assigned to a town become the agents of the town school committee and subject to its rules and regulations. The state board of education, however, governs their activities by requiring that they visit each teacher at least twice a month, give at least two hours of instruction per month to each teacher, and keep the local authorities and communities informed of the condition of the schools. The state department desires that supervisors confine their efforts to supervision, but in some instances local school committees delegate administrative duties and clerical tasks to them, and thus they become administrative as well as supervisory officers.

There are three regional supervisors in the state department who oversee the work of the rural supervisors and who are responsible for the supervision of the schools of a single town in the same manner as the other supervisors. The salaries of supervisors range from \$2,040 to \$2,640, the latter being the maximum in which the state shares.

[*Rural supervision in New Jersey.*] New Jersey has developed another form of organization. The principal unit of administrative control in this state is the borough, a division which corresponds roughly in size to the western township. There is, however, a form of county organization with a county superintendent. The state commissioner of education, subject to approval of the state board, appoints him, and the state pays his salary.

Cities and boroughs that meet the requirements of the state department of education may appoint and control their own supervisors. Boroughs unable to meet these requirements are supervised through the county. This supervision is largely under state control. One or more assistants to the county superintendent, known as helping teachers, may be appointed at the discretion of the state board of education. They are paid from state funds. At the present time such helping teachers are found in all the counties of New Jersey except those which are wholly urban. Their work is chiefly supervisory, but the county superintendents may delegate administrative duties to them.

[*Rural supervision in North Dakota.*] Still another method of providing rural supervision is found in North Dakota. In North Dakota local control of schools is divided between the county, and the district and the township. Over each county is a county superintendent, a political officer elected with other county officers at the regular county election.

The state has a permissive law governing the appointment of rural supervisors. County superintendents who have fifty or more teachers to supervise may appoint an office deputy; those who have 100 or more teachers under their control may appoint a field deputy, and also an additional field deputy for each additional 150 teachers, who shall assist them in visiting schools and in the general supervision of the education work in the county.

The state requires these field deputies or supervisors to have the same training as the county superintendent. They must be graduates of a reputable normal school or institution of higher learning, or possess at least a second-grade professional certificate, and have a minimum of two years of successful teaching experience, one of which must have been

in the state. The salary of a field deputy shall be at least 80 per cent of the salary of the county superintendent.

At the present time North Dakota reports that in the 53 counties of the state, 15 field deputies are employed. The number of supervisors employed varies according to the rise and fall of prosperity in the state.

[*Rural supervision in Wisconsin.*] In Wisconsin local control of the rural schools rests chiefly on the district, although a county organization with a superintendent elected by the people exists for supervisory purposes. The state has a mandatory law requiring the county superintendents to appoint a supervising teacher to assist him in supervising the schools. If the county superintendent has more than 125 teachers under his direction he must employ two supervising teachers.

The county board fixes the salary of the supervising teachers, which must be not less than \$100 per month for ten months. It must also reimburse them for all actual and necessary expenses incurred in the performance of their duties. They must hold at least a first- or second-grade county certificate of graduation from a county training school for teachers, or from the teachers' training course of a high school, and have had three years' successful teaching experience, one of which must have been in rural schools.

The expenditures made for salary and expenses of supervising teachers are, upon receipt of a proper report, reimbursed to the county by the state.

Summarizing the quotations above, one discovers some very definite trends. In all of the states mentioned, except in North Dakota, the state pays the salary and expenses of the rural supervisor. He is nominated or appointed by the county superintendent, except in Connecticut. In general, he works under the direction of the county superintendent with the state exercising much more direct control than is done in urban supervision. The state fixes the minimum educational and professional qualifications and the minimum salary of the supervisor. The average number of teachers per supervisor varies from 30 in Connecticut to a maximum of 150 in North Dakota.

A study made by the author in 1925 included reports from 234 counties and supervisory districts in 44 states. Of this group, 109 report supervisors other than the county superintendent and 125 indicate that the county or district superintendent is the

only supervisory officer other than the principals of local school units. The number of supervisors per county varies considerably. Forty-six counties report that, in addition to the county superintendent, there is one general supervisor, 34 counties report two, 9 report three, 11 report four, and 9 counties report five or more members of the supervisory staff in addition to the county superintendent.

These supervisors are variously designated. In some counties the deputy or assistant superintendent is in immediate charge of supervision. In other counties he is the office manager. In Wisconsin the county supervisor is called a supervising teacher; in New Jersey, a helping teacher. Usually he is called a rural-school supervisor. In some states, in addition to the supervisor of general subjects, there are employed supervisors of special subjects. Carroll County, Maryland, has the following supervisory force: one grade supervisor, two rural supervisors, music supervisor, play and attendance supervisor, supervisor of colored schools, and school nurse. Chester County, Pennsylvania, reports two assistant superintendents and a supervisor of vocational agriculture. Wayne County, Michigan, employs a deputy commissioner, a school nurse, an attendance officer, and three supervising teachers. Carteret County, North Carolina, provides a supervisor of county schools, a superintendent of public welfare, a county health officer, and a farm demonstration agent. Sonoma County, California, reports, in addition to an assistant superintendent and two deputy superintendents, the following supervisory staff:

- 1 Director of Research
- 1 Supervisor of Physical Education and Americanization
- 1 Supervisor of Music
- 1 Supervisor of Agriculture
- 3 General Supervisors
- 1 Supervisor of Attendance
- 3 School Nurses

In each of 38 of Wisconsin's counties two supervising teachers are employed, and in each of 34 counties one such supervisor is used.

In Wasco County, Oregon, a county health nurse is reported. This does not exhaust the list. There are boys' and girls' club leaders, demonstration agents, directors of thrift work. Although some of these are not legally designated as members of the supervisory staff, nevertheless they directly influence the quality of instruction in either general or special fields.

It is obvious that in those intermediate units where the county or district superintendent is the sole supervisory officer, no very extensive program of supervision can be undertaken, for the greater part of his time is of necessity devoted to administration. Only when supervisory assistance is afforded him can he organize a program of supervision with any definite hope of realizing it.

C. TYPES OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

The zone plan of organization. In Oakland County, Michigan, the county commissioner secured the services of three supervising teachers. He describes the plan that he put into operation in a report to the county board of supervisors. A portion of his report follows:⁷

On September 5th, 1924, at a county institute held in Pontiac, we had nearly all of the two hundred teachers that come under our direct supervision in attendance. I explained to them that we were to have the services of three supervisors or helping teachers and gave them an opportunity to ask for this helping teacher service. I told them that it was not compulsory and that we were not anxious to have too many ask for it. In consideration of having a monthly call from one of the helping teachers, the regular teachers of the schools agreed to give one Saturday of each month when they would come together at places conveniently arranged for the study of any matters that would increase their efficiency as teachers and enable them better to serve the boys and girls. To the great credit of the teachers of your county 136 of them at once made written request for this service. These 136 were scattered over the nine hundred square miles of the county, some in each township.

The territory of the county was roughly divided into three sections or zones, according to roads and location of the schools having teachers

⁷ Report of Office of Commissioner of Schools, Oakland County, Michigan, April 13, 1925, pp. 2, 3.

requesting this service. One of the helping teachers was designated to work in each zone. For convenience of meeting, and so on, each of these larger territories was divided into three smaller sections or divisions consisting of about 15 teachers in each group, who meet by themselves as a group on the various Saturdays.

According to this arrangement each helping teacher had supervision of about 45 regular teachers. This number has kept them exceedingly busy. These helping teachers have left the office early in the morning, usually from 8 to 8:30, returning more often after 5 o'clock than before. Weather, unless exceedingly severe, has not kept them from their work in the field. They have been on a fixed schedule, as it is necessary that each day's work be done on time otherwise the whole program would be more or less upset.

Their schedules were so arranged that they were to be three weeks in the field. With a Saturday meeting each of these weeks would mean six full days per week. During the fourth week of the month it was intended they should be in the office planning the work of the next round and making preparations for the same. I had hoped that in consideration of three strenuous weeks that this off week might be relatively easy, but in every month we have found this fully as busy as, or more busy than, the other weeks. I simply cite these matters to show that these people have been on the job and working.

A number of teachers who did not elect to come under this supervision at the time it was begun, when they found out the nature of the work and the kind of help received, requested that they might be included. A few of the schools through change of teachers dropped out but the number of people enrolled at present is greater than the number with which we started. No school was included having more than two teachers, even though last fall they requested the service and are asking for it more loudly now. It was my idea that those who had the hardest job should be served first and we kindly requested the others to wait for a time. It is impossible with the territory we have to cover for any helping teacher to take care of more than 45 teachers in one- and two-teacher schools and do the work satisfactorily. From all indications the requests for this service next fall will be much greater than it has been this year. In fact, the demand is becoming so insistent from some of the three- and four-teacher schools that we must include them also. There are a number of teachers in one-teacher schools who are not at present included, who next year will ask for this help now that they know what it is. I might state that the entire twenty-two people who graduate from the Oakland County Normal this year have already made requests for the same. This will mean that if we want to take care of all who ask

for the service and do the same quality of supervision that we have been doing this year, it will be necessary that another supervisor be added to the force.

The helping-teacher plan of supervisory organization. The unit of organization in Maine is the town or township—the type found in New England. The schools of the town are under a committee of three, and are under a superintendent of a union of towns. The helping teacher not only teaches a school, but becomes a helping teacher under the superintendent for other teachers of the town.

Certain benefits have been found to be the result of this plan. Rural education is motivated; young people are stimulated to display ability in order to qualify for the position of helping teacher. Salaries have been raised, which keeps the higher level teacher in the field, and it assures the state of one hundred teachers with definite ideas and ideals of rural-school advancement.

Each superintendent of schools may nominate a rural teacher as helping teacher and send her to the Helping Teacher Training School at Castine, Maine. The nominee must be a graduate of a normal school (which fact raises the professional preparation standards for rural teachers) or the equivalent; must have had two to five years of successful teaching in rural schools; and, personally, must have a pleasing personality. Expenses are paid entirely.

The duties of the helping teacher are as follows:

The helping teacher's school will act as a demonstration center and a standard school.

She must arrange her school work so that her school is in session Saturday instead of Monday.

On Saturday, the superintendent may direct the young and untrained teachers to visit the helping teacher's school for purposes of observation and advice.

On Mondays, upon the request of the superintendent of schools, the helping teacher visits schools of teachers who are needing help, and she does all she can to advise and assist them, both in method of work and discipline.

She keeps a careful record of the visits to her school, the assistance she gives, and of her visits to teachers of other schools. These are submitted to the superintendent and to the State Department when requested.

The plan certainly has the desirable quality of raising the standards of rural teaching—it avoids taking the best material out of the teaching profession for supervision work, and it really provides 100 training schools or observation centers throughout the state. The disadvantage lies in the fact that the help of the teacher may be secured only on certain days—there may be times when a teacher needs help during the week. Supervision “on call” is impossible here. The hope for a program of supervision is not realized, for the teacher is kept busy with her class work, since she must keep it on the highest level. It is impossible to make supervision a distinct feature of the town program of education.

The group system of supervisory organization. The group system of supervisory organization is found in Virginia and North Carolina, and is explained in a report submitted by James C. Ambler, Division Superintendent of Fauquier County, Virginia. His report follows:⁸

Rural supervisors usually work among one-, two- and three-room schools, and as a whole they leave the larger high schools alone. High-school principals are entirely out of touch with the conditions and needs of the smaller schools around them. If we are to have an efficient school system, these small rural schools must be the natural feeders to the high schools and are just as important to its success as its own elementary department. The principal of a high school should be just as much in touch with the grade work of his feeder schools as he is with the grade work of his own school. As a rule, principals of high schools resent any interference on the part of the rural supervisors. They feel that they are independent units, directly under the supervision of the superintendent. This feeling tends to break up unity and the spirit of sympathetic coöperation.

To get around this condition, the group system of organization was

⁸ J. C. Ambler, unpublished report on rural supervision in Fauquier County, Virginia.

put into effect in Fauquier County and has been working very successfully. The county was divided into seven groups centered around the seven largest schools. The principal of this large central school was appointed supervising principal of the group. The rest of the group was composed of the smaller schools that would be the natural feeders to the central high school. By dividing the county into seven groups arranged in natural geographical divisions, nearly all schools are in comparatively easy reach of the central high school of the group.

The supervising principal of the group is the principal of all the schools in his group. Any one of the teachers in the smaller schools has as much right to call on him for advice and assistance as one of the teachers in his own school. All orders and reports to the teachers in the group pass through the supervising principal.

Each group has a meeting of its teachers on one Saturday in each month. This meeting may be held either at the central high school or at one of the smaller schools of the group. Here, problems of the amount of text to be covered during certain periods of time, questions of discipline, community interests, methods of teaching by which best results are obtained and any number of other problems that come to a teacher are discussed. These meetings are not lectures but "round table" discussions where all can freely take part. Any teacher gets out of the meeting as much, or as little, as she puts into it. Our best supervising principals give very little advice, but encourage discussion. A social feature may be added to the meeting if the teachers desire.

All supervising principals are allowed three days in the fall and three days in the spring to supervise the schools of their group other than the school in which they teach. They give written tests to their own classes on the days when they supervise.

All supervising principals meet in the superintendent's office once every two months and discuss the general problems of the whole county. At these meetings the superintendent presides and the supervising principals are considered as delegates from the different parts of the county. They have a voice in discussing the general policies and plans.

This year we have worked out uniform examinations for the seventh grade. All questions were submitted to supervising principals and uniform examinations were worked out. We will be assured that pupils promoted from the seventh grade to the eighth grade this year will be uniformly well prepared, no matter in what part of the county the school may be located, nor what the length of term.

As soon as the mid-term examinations are over, we hope to work out a plan for a general county field day. Preliminary events, or group field

days, will be held first and the winners of various events will compose the group team to compete for the county cup.

If supervising principals will really work, there is no limit to the possibilities of an organization of this kind.

Obviously, the weakness of this plan of organization lies in the fact that little or no actual supervision results. The group principal has but six days each year for supervision—not sufficient even to become acquainted with the group of schools. Its merit lies in the contacts that result for rural teachers. They “belong somewhere” and are not subject to the degree of isolation that is the fate of the average teacher of a one-room school. Standards in the rural schools are undoubtedly raised by this plan of organization. It is to be remembered that in this county there is supervision from the division superintendent’s office as well as the group supervision.

The countywide plan of organization. History tells us that the county system originated in the states south of the Mason-Dixon line, and that it was the most effective division for the government of a territory that emphasized large plantations rather than small towns. From a political instrument meant to satisfy certain needs peculiar to one section, the county system has been taken over by other states and made to fit other conditions, and has become both an intermediate and a local unit of school administration.

Maurice S. H. Unger, Superintendent of Carroll County schools, Westminster, Maryland, in describing the advantages of the county as a unit of organization,⁹ criticizes the district system because of its lack of a central board. He feels that the system is weakened by placing in the hands of a number of trustees, all having equal authority, and none having any special ability for the position—the guidance of a section of the state. The office of trustee is a political one, and the district is fortunate that can demand that the trustees be persons who will work for the growth

⁹ Maurice S. H. Unger, “The County as a Unit of Organization.”

of the educational system rather than the growth of their own influence.

Unger considers the town organization an "improved modification" of the district organization. The town has the advantage of centralization of management, and can, in consequence, secure a higher order of school trustees. But the town is small—frequently only a village with a few rural schools in the environs, and seldom a wealthy township. It is difficult for so small a unit to put into practice a very sweeping educational program. One town cannot pay enough to employ a capable superintendent; there will not be enough funds for a first-class supervisor. The growth of the schools will be limited to the horizon of the individuals who are in charge of the educational policy of the system. Some towns have felt this need and have joined together as unions of several townships, depending on the population, area concerned, and the topography of the towns. But still the fact remains that the union is just a group of individual towns, and its success as an educational enterprise is determined by the organizing ability of the superintendent.

The county unit, by virtue of its size, its relations to the state board of education, and because it unites all rural and urban communities of a large area ranging from rural districts and small villages to cities of 10,000—40,000 inhabitants, is the most satisfactory unit. The county can provide for each community expert professional service beyond what the community could pay for alone. Unger notes that the flexibility and elasticity of the city organization becomes readily adaptable to rural communities under the county unit system. There is direct responsibility in the person of the superintendent, who is responsible for the administration and supervision of the schools in the county and therefore has direct control over the whole system. But this control is not isolated. The superintendent gets course of study aids from the state department; the minimum length of the school year is determined by the state; the certification of teachers is done by a uniform examination, or, as in Maryland, it is based

solely on school credits, and the certificates are usually issued by the state superintendent. In some states—the smaller ones—it is possible for the state superintendent to visit the schools in the various counties, to keep in close touch with educational practice throughout the state. But in the larger states, this is left to the county superintendent.

The countywide system of organization in itself, without leadership on the part of both state and county superintendents, does not necessarily offer efficient service to the community. It has not always meant the best expenditure of funds, and it has often meant lack of ability of the officials in charge because of the political element involved in their selection. But on the whole, the county offers a workable basis for organization, and many states have experimented with one county, and usually have been favorable to supervision when the results have become known. It is true that the county unit of division existed long before any attempts at supervision were thought of, and this fact has furthered the development of rural supervision, for the adaptability of the American people has enabled them to take the existing division and utilize it to the greatest advantage possible in establishing a system for education. We find, then, that the organization of supervision is determined largely by the existing governmental unit.

Maryland presents one of the best illustrations of the countywide plan of organization.¹⁰

A small county board of education is at the head of the system. It appoints the superintendent as its executive officer and through him runs the schools of the county. The state is fully committed to the policy of employing full-time supervisors. Counties having less than 80 white teachers must, under the law, employ one supervisor; between 80 and 120 white teachers, two supervisors; between 120 and 160 white teachers, a supervisor for each additional 50 teachers. Seventeen work exclusively in rural schools, and the remaining 15 work only in graded schools.

Supervisors or helping teachers are appointed by the county board upon nomination of the county superintendent. Their appointment must

¹⁰ Report of Katharine Healy, Supervisor of Elementary Schools in Caroline County, Maryland, 1926.

have the written approval of the state superintendent of schools, and they must hold a certificate from the state department of education.

Because Caroline County is typical of Maryland counties, and because a very complete annual supervisory report is available, let us see how the plan works in practice.

In Caroline County there is one elementary school supervisor for each of three fields of supervision: (1) town and intermediate and grammar grade work; (2) town primary work; and (3) the one- and two-room rural school work. There are 6 town or graded schools, and 28 one-teacher schools. There are 78 teachers located in these 42 schools. There is held every year, just previous to the opening of school in September, a general meeting followed by several group or sectional meetings. At the general half-day meeting, all elementary teachers are present. The main purpose of this large meeting is to permit the superintendent and supervisor to define such educational problems as are necessary, and to set up goals for the year. The objectives for the state and county are here first presented."

The supervisor is assisted by the county superintendent and teachers in carrying out the educational policies of the county, but a handicap exists in the form of the diverse field that must be handled by one supervisor alone.

Wisconsin uses the "countywide" plan of supervisory organization without the centralization of school control that exists in Maryland. In Maryland the county is the local unit of school administration. In Wisconsin it is an intermediate unit including more than a hundred local districts with corporate autonomy. Teachers are selected by school district officers. The county superintendent selects the rural supervisor, the county board of supervisors fixes her salary, and the state pays the salary and traveling expenses. Even with so high a degree of decentralization the county plan of supervision operates effectively. Its weaknesses are (a) the low standards of training of the rural supervisors, and (b) the large number of teachers per supervisor.

The "grade" organization of supervision. Another type of supervisory organization is that found in Wood County, Ohio. In-

stead of dividing the work geographically, this plan covers the entire county, and the division of labor is by grades, one supervisor directing the work for the lower grades throughout the area, and another the work in the upper grades.

The most significant feature of the supervisory work in this county is the careful planning of supervision. Superintendent Hall says: "Objectives for the year are determined through field work, observation, testing, and experimental work. Surveys show needs as they appear. The result is a coöperative effort to satisfy the needs. The results are checked at the end of the term and a county graph made."

Wood County supervision resembles that usually confined to cities, not only in the division by grades, but in the method of caring for individual teachers' needs "on call."

The normal school plan of supervision. An individual type, which is perhaps the most unique of all, is that in practice in the states of Idaho and Oklahoma. In Idaho the topography has much to do with the organization. A range of mountains—the Blue Mountains—crossing the state about two-thirds of the distance from the southern boundary to the northern "handle," divides the state naturally into two sections. The north is devoted to wheat farming, lumbering, and mining; the south, with its vast stretches of sage brush and desert land, is almost wholly given over to sheep raising and wheat and fruit growing. The University of Idaho, in the northern part, draws a large proportion of its students from Washington and Oregon, and the students from southern Idaho find it more convenient to go to Utah and Oregon to school. There is a state normal school in the northern section, at Lewiston, and another in the south, at Albion. There are fourteen counties that fall north of the Blue Mountains and twenty-four which lie to the south.

Since each state normal school practically supplies its particular section with rural teachers, the state department of education found it advisable to employ two supervisors (now raised to four) for each section. They work out of the normal school

and return to teach in the department of rural education during the summer quarter.

The supervision work in the state of Idaho is done in coöperation with the state department of education, the normal school, and more directly with the county superintendents. The state is divided into two congressional districts. This is the determining factor in the division of the supervision field. However, that is not entirely true. To save time and expense, some exchanges have been made, with the result that the northern supervisor has nineteen counties, and the one representing the Albion State Normal School has the remaining twenty-five. The supervisor of south Idaho has not been able to reach all of her counties, so that the state department has increased the number of supervisors for each district. This was thought necessary in order to further the general aim of rural supervision, which is the development of better rural schools, and to reach more of the parents and trustees as well as teachers and pupils.

The annual report of a successful supervisor in the southern district for the year 1925-26 gives us a definite notion of the organization of supervision in the state.¹¹

While at the meeting at Boise, letters were written to the county superintendents telling of the general plan of work for the year. More specific letters were written to those who were to be visited during September and during the early part of October. The county superintendents in turn selected one or more schools which might be used as demonstration centers. When the supervisor arrived, the location of the schools, the roads leading to them, possible weather conditions, seating capacity and facilities for seating, building, community, and disposition of teachers were discussed and the selection of the school made. In numerous counties, this is no easy matter.

The supervisor usually spends two days at the center school trying to help teachers and pupils. It is the plan of the supervisor that the teacher should not know of her coming. In this way she can quietly enter the school room without alarming the teacher and pupils. She sees things as

¹¹ Unpublished report of Gertrude Walter, Supervisor of Rural Schools in Southern Idaho, 1925.

they really are in the daily life of the school, which enables her to see the needs of the teacher and the pupils. Objectives are set up by the supervisor toward which she wishes the teacher to work. The boys and girls are led to make suggestions regarding the school building, their own neatness, and school activities, that each may be made to feel his or her responsibility. Here the spirit of coöperation is developed.

The period of organization, then, is a time for careful diagnosis, for setting up standards and ideals in cleanliness, health, habits, and school work.

The county superintendent was asked to write a letter of invitation to each trustee, explaining the purpose of the demonstration meeting, and urging him to come and to see that his teacher be provided a way to get to the meeting. The superintendent was also asked to send an invitation to the rural teachers of her county, asking each of them to come prepared to teach a game to the other teachers during the morning recess, and to bring a display of her seatwork. Usually, three or four weeks following the first visit the supervisor returned to the school.

Generally the county superintendent accompanied the supervisor to support the work and to acquaint herself with the general aim and the technique of the methods used, that she might carry them on to the teachers who could not attend the demonstration. In addition to this, it was the duty of the county superintendent to aid the mothers of the community to plan for the service of lunch to the teachers. She also aided in planning a community program and arousing interest among teachers, trustees, and parents in the demonstration work.

The same general plan is in operation in Oklahoma. The state is divided into six districts for purposes of rural school supervision. In each district there is a teachers' college that gives assistance to the public schools. All six districts work in harmony with the state department of education. A description of the relationship of the State Teachers' College at Tahlequah to the Northeastern District is taken from a recent bulletin:¹²

Northeastern District itself is directly under the guidance of Northeastern State Teachers' College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma. The administration, as well as each member of the faculty of this institution, stands ready at any and all times to render service to this district. The indi-

¹² Northeastern Teachers College Supervisory Yearbook, 1930-31 (Tahlequah, Oklahoma, Northeastern Teachers College, 1931), pp. 6, 10.

viduals, however, who concern themselves more directly with the supervision of the rural schools of this district are:

M. P. Hammond, President of the College
 D. W. Emerson, Director of Rural Education and Extension
 Lector Hackworth, Supervisor of Rural School Instruction
 E. J. Green, Associate Professor of Education
 J. E. Arendell, Associate Professor of Education
 Ruth D. Hicks, Secretary of Extension Division

The supervisory program which is being sponsored by Northeastern State Teachers College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma, has now been in progress for a period of two years. The director of rural education and the supervisors feel very much encouraged with the growth of this work. The county superintendents of the fifteen counties of the Northeastern District, as well as the teachers, certainly deserve a great deal of commendation for the part which they have taken in this program. The college administration recognizes and appreciates this fact. It is, therefore, the purpose of this section of the bulletin to set forth, briefly, a summary of the work in the entire district.

During the first year of the supervisory work only ten of the fifteen counties of the district participated. However, during the second year the entire district, which is fifteen counties, took part in this movement. The general plan of organization was the same throughout the district with the exception of two counties. Tulsa County and Osage County each had a county supervisor—hence the work in these counties was of a more intensive nature. The supervisory force of the college, however, worked in coöperation and in absolute harmony with these two supervisors. The work of the remaining counties necessarily had to be of the extensive type instead of the intensive type. The teachers in the remaining counties were divided, in the main, into two groups per county for the purpose of holding group meetings.

The general purpose of the program for the entire district, including Tulsa and Osage Counties, was to help the rural teachers to improve classroom instruction, with special emphasis on the improving of the teaching of reading and the teaching of arithmetic. Splendid response was given and in a general way the program was carried to completion very much as it was planned.

This plan is largely an extension of institutional teacher training, and can scarcely be considered as an adequate solution of the rural problem. The greatest element in its favor is the pro-

vision for "following up" the rural teachers who are trained in the normal school. The supervisor watches the teacher at work during the summer, and then sees her in service during the school year. In this way, the supervisor is better able to make recommendations and to help the young teachers. A second point—perhaps not an ordinary supervisory function—is that the supervisor, by keeping in touch with the normal school, is able to recommend teachers to trustees. Very often the trustees of school districts are unable to find teachers who are suited to handle particular conditions; frequently the trustees are without even elementary education. The supervisor, by gaining the confidence of these men and women, is able to advise and recommend students with whom she has worked in the normal school. For the improvement of rural teaching standards and general advancement of education in the rural districts, this is an important function of the supervisor who works out of the one and only teacher training institution in the particular district.

The statewide plan. A plan still different from any described above is that of Connecticut. The state undertook rural supervision as early as 1903. At that time it was provided by law that the state board of education should appoint rural-school supervisors upon the petition of school committees or town meetings, in those towns which had 20 teachers or less (later raised to 25 teachers), and that the state should bear a part of the expense. But not until 1907, when the state assumed the whole expense of supervision, did a respectable number of the towns take advantage of the opportunity to secure supervision. At present nearly all of the eligible towns have supervision. By paying the supervisors, the state assumes the responsibility of seeing that the work is effective. Consequently, we have a condition where the supervisors are responsible to the state board of education. They work out of the state office; that is, each of the 29 full-time and 3 part-time supervisors is assigned to a town, and thus becomes its agent subject to its rules and regulations. By requiring that they visit each teacher at least twice a month, give at least two

hours of instruction per month to each teacher, and keep the local authorities and communities informed of the conditions of the schools, the state board governs supervisory activities.

The state department desired that supervisors confine their efforts to supervision, but in some instances local school committees delegate administrative duties and clerical tasks to them, and thus they become administrative as well as supervisory officers.

Until 1925, the state was divided into three "regions," with a regional supervisor at the head of each. These officials worked in the state department, their duty being to oversee the work of the rural supervisors. They were also responsible for the supervision of the schools of a single town in the same manner as the other supervisors. These regional supervisors have been done away with and in their place is an assistant who comes into the state office, and whose duties are largely in the field of the primary grades.

This change accompanies the enlargement of the men's territory, with primary supervisors assigned as associates. A supervisor of elementary agriculture and nature study works in this division also. For other special types of service, the other divisions of the State Board of Education are drawn upon, for example, physical education and special education.¹³

The number of towns assigned to a supervisor varies from two to five, depending upon their size, conditions of travel, and local conditions. The number of teachers per supervisor varies from 30 to 45, depending upon the proportion of one-teacher and graded schools.

The state board of education demands definite professional qualifications in its appointees, and furthers in every way continued professional growth in service. High standards of accomplishment are set and adhered to. Emphasis is placed on the supervisory function. An extract from a statement concerning the

¹³ Report of the State Board of Education of Connecticut to the Governor, 1925.

position of supervising agent prepared for people who are considering appointments may make these standards clear.¹⁴

a. The supervising agents will be held responsible to the town school committees they serve as well as to this board through its secretary (Commissioner of Education) for the organization, progress, and tone of the school systems in their charge, and for the classification, management, and progress of the pupils.

b. They shall in general visit each school twice a month for the purpose of improving the instruction and promoting the progress of the pupils and of noting the condition of the school property.

c. They shall report each month upon blanks prescribed by the Secretary of the State Board of Education, and make special reports as requested by the Director of Rural Education with the approval of the Secretary.

d. They shall, in towns eligible to the support of school grants, formally notify, in writing, the Secretary of the State Board, through the Director of Rural Education, of (1) any teacher who is not managing or teaching successfully and any teacher who should for any reason be disapproved; and (2) any building which is not in good repair.

e. They are instructed to keep the local school officers informed of the needs of the schools, of the supervisor's work and of the work of the teachers, the attendance of the children, the conditions of the building, and from time to time such other facts as will fix local responsibility and will enable school officers to act intelligently.

f. They shall, either at teachers' meetings or at such other times as seem most convenient, exclusive of regular visits and preferably outside of school hours, give to each elementary teacher at least two hours of instruction in each month, and give or cause to be given like instruction to each high-school teacher.

g. Each supervisor shall exercise educational leadership in his towns, and shall keep his communities informed of the needs and progress of the schools, and of educational movements in the state and nation, and shall use all practicable means to this end, including public meetings.

Organization has replaced what amounted to chaos. Definite plans for the progress of the children have been formulated where before there was no guide.

¹⁴ Report of the State Board of Education of Connecticut to the Governor, 1925.

Supervision without a supervisor. As has been before stated, the majority of counties and districts throughout the country are without the services of a general supervisor other than the superintendent. The varied and numerous clerical and administrative duties of the superintendent leave but little time for organized supervision. In such cases much of the supervision is by means of letters and bulletins.

The following report of a county superintendent to her county board gives a running account of her work for a year. Under the conditions outlined in this report, it is remarkable that she found time to make 265 visits to schools.

ANNUAL REPORT OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

After having been in the office since May 1, 1924, have spent from twelve to fifteen hours a day accomplishing the following:

Assorted files, papers, reports, and put office in sanitary condition.

Sent election material to directors for two regular school elections.

Had ballots printed and mailed to each secretary of the Board of Directors.

Certified returns of two regular school elections. Made copies of same for the County Board, County Clerk, and list of directors for County Treasurer.

Held two county literary contests at ———, two field day programs at ———, three group meetings, and two scholastic contests. Financed all without any expense to the county.

Influential in compromising serious school trouble at ———, and helped to quiet the one at ———.

Had memorial exercises held for ——— at the same hour over the county.

In one district visited, found nineteen white children who had not been to school but two months in two years. Too poor to buy books. Through kindness of ladies of ——— secured books, shoes, and clothes for them.

Had a negro cabin whitewashed and put these children in school. Sunday school organized. People of the district say since the organization of the Sunday school their home life has improved. Bibles were given to each family. They were truly welcomed. Negro directors in that district spent \$1,896 on six months school. This year they have had six months negro school, three teachers employed, a nine month school for

white children. Ceiled one, repaired two schoolhouses, and they have over three hundred dollars in the treasury left.

In another district I found \$400 and have spent it on desks, maps, charts, book cases, and books, and there was not even a schoolhouse in the district; \$157 worth was bought one year when they had a surplus on hand.

In checking five districts alone there has been enough money saved these districts to pay entire expenses of county superintendent's office.

Wrote educational articles for the ———, thus keeping before the public what is being done for the boys and girls of ——— county.

Held all the regular teacher's examinations, corrected and filed papers, registered and mailed certificates.

Directed a play under the auspices of the County Federation of Women's Clubs. Cleared \$500. Money used for opportunity school work in the county.

Made annual report for state superintendent.

Prepared institute program for white teachers, notified teachers, and was prepared to fill any vacancy on the program in case of absence of teacher.

Both the institutes, for white and black, were financed without expense to the county.

Have secured ——— funds to help finance the erection of two buildings, one two-room and one three-room. Both have been completed. One one-room and one two-room school have been built for the white children. Several additions have been added to the old buildings, besides other repairs. Have fourteen new school buildings to erect. The contracts have been let for several of them already.

Have been instrumental in bringing about four consolidations.

Spent two days in ——— at state contest.

Spent one day in State Department of Education office.

Acted as judge of school work in ——— county fair.

Attended county superintendents' meeting at ———, where after taking notes from the lectures of ——— and ———, I wrote four articles giving the gist of their lectures and had them published in ———.

Attended State Teachers' Association at ———.

Spent one day visiting schools in ——— county.

Made two trips to ——— on school business.

Went on educational trip to ——— and ———.

Took trip to ——— to study buildings.

Acted as judge of school work at ———.

Made house to house canvass in several districts, striving to come in personal touch with the people.

Have made 265 visits to schools.

Have spoken to 100 audiences.

Held meeting of high-school superintendents to plan ways and means of giving the boys and girls who enter from the rural districts a better opportunity. They promised to work as a unit so the requirements for entrance from the rural school will be the same.

Had educational week observed by the teachers in their respective schools. Mailed suggestive programs to each teacher in the county.

Visited negro schoolhouses where all the directors were negroes.

Had the repairs made on the houses. Negroes have spent several hundred dollars on repairs before this.

Organized teachers in the county into four groups. They met four times for three hours' study each time.

Two professional reading books were not only read but studied.

Had school grounds at several places landscaped by _____. The best work done in this respect was at _____ and _____. At _____ a two-block concrete wall was made, 200 yards of hedging, several trees, and many flowers were planted. At _____ 50 trees were planted, and two hundred and fifty dollars worth of playground equipment was added.

Held one rally for white teachers of the county and two for the negroes.

Served on committee to write constitution and by-laws for athletic association.

The following men have visited the county and with me the schools:

- _____, State Superintendent
- _____, Supervisor of Rural Teachers
- _____, High School Inspector
- _____, Supervisor of Buildings and Grounds
- _____, Supervisor of Negro Work
- _____, Smith Hughes Agent
- _____, State Health Department
- _____, General Education Board
- _____, Rosenwald Agent for the negroes

Had _____ in the county for a month, organizing opportunity schools.

Averaged two nights a week and one Sunday in the county on school business.

Have attended special elections, pie suppers, picnics, literary programs, directors' meetings, spoken on programs, and made every effort to arouse interest in school work.

Have striven to spend a day in each school after which, when necessary, I mail the teachers books outlining busy work and suggestive lessons.

Keep in my office prepared lessons and helps for the teachers.

Have encouraged teachers to keep up with the failures in October, and there will be few if any failures in May.

Have worked coöperatively with all county and state workers.

Have given full time to county.

Have striven to make my teachers feel I was their friend, trying to guide when I saw room for improvement.

We are growing and pulling together by study, by social gatherings, by coöperation.

"High-school education for every child in —— county" is my slogan.

The report given above indicates the remarkable versatility required of one in a county superintendent's position. He must be janitor, clerk, lawyer, judge, visiting nurse, minister, household decorator, contractor, carpenter, purchasing agent, author, dramatic coach, landscape gardener, lecturer, canvasser, examiner, supervisor, student, teacher, and administrator. No doubt the diary given above can be duplicated in the majority of our states. It is not to be wondered at that the county superintendent without a supervisor finds but little time and energy for rural supervision.

Typical supervisory schemes described in this chapter are determined by conditions existing within the various states. From the standpoint of the size of the supervisory unit we have the town in Connecticut; the zone in Michigan; the county in Maryland, Wisconsin, Ohio, and a number of other states; a group of counties as in Virginia, Idaho, and Oklahoma. Control may be vested in the local administrative unit, the county, the state, or a teacher-training institution. The supervisor may be a local official, a county agent, a member of the teaching staff of an educational institution, or a state representative.

Some administrative conditions essential to effective rural supervision. As one analyzes the various supervisory plans certain elements of strength and weakness stand out.

1. The local unit of administration and supervision should be the same. In a state where the county is a weak unit of school control and the school district is a strong unit, supervision of rural schools cannot be highly effective. The district unit employs

the teacher, selects textbooks, fixes salaries, and in a measure determines the professional and academic standards for teachers. Under such conditions supervision cannot accomplish what it should. Likewise, complete state control of supervisors who work in smaller school units is open to much the same criticism.

2. The county, both for the organization of the administration and the supervision of rural schools, is a logical unit. As a taxing unit it operates to equalize school support and to provide for better educational opportunities for all schools. It furnishes a unit sufficiently large to justify rural supervision, a county health program, attendance enforcement, an enriched curriculum, special attention to music and art, and at the same time it is small enough to make possible and operative local interest, initiative, and pride. The difficulties now in the way of rural supervision, such as inadequately trained teachers, a meager curriculum, etc., could under this plan be materially decreased. Consolidation of small schools, provisions for transportation, a county curriculum, better trained teachers, and a longer school year would follow.

The organization suggested above would involve the elimination of present school-district boundaries with the exception of cities, the selection of a county board of education by the people, and an appointive county superintendent with an adequate administrative, supervisory, and clerical staff.

3. The state's relationship to rural supervision should be advisory and stimulative, rather than administrative. State support should be based upon the attainment of standards dealing with the academic and professional training of supervisors and teachers, the quality and amount of equipment and supplies, and the ability of the local unit to provide educational opportunity. In general, the state should not direct the activities of rural supervisors; its experts should act as consultants leaving with each county unit educational jurisdiction.

Summary. The variety of plans for the organization of supervision described in this chapter is a natural result of the confusion which exists in the United States in school administration.

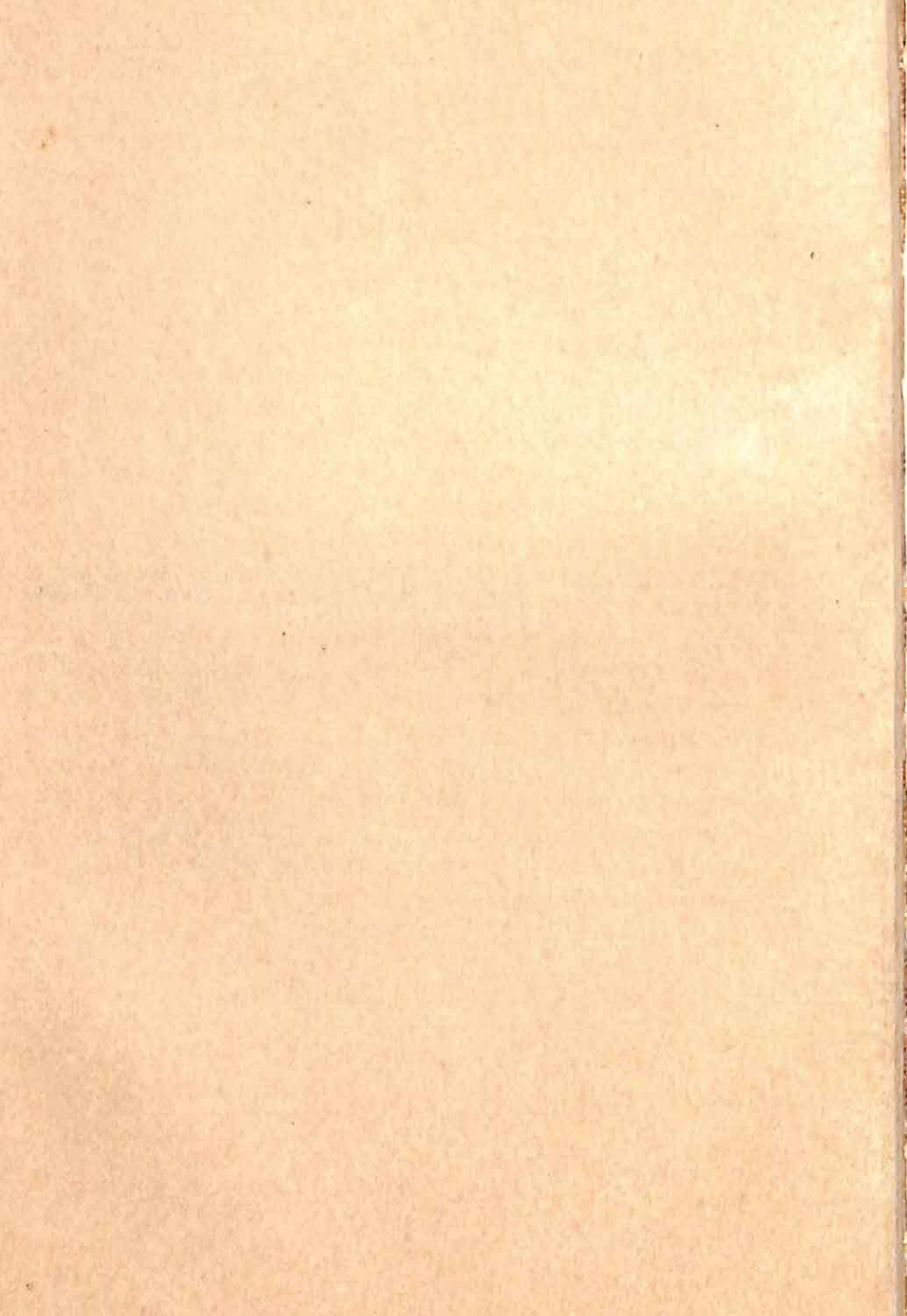
In addition to this confusion the practical difficulties involved in introducing supervision into rural schools have made necessary many makeshift schemes.

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PART II

PREREQUISITES FOR EFFECTIVE RURAL-SCHOOL
SUPERVISION



CHAPTER III

THE PLANNING OF COUNTY SUPERVISORY PROGRAMS

Planned supervisory programs not typical of rural supervisory procedure. Definitely planned programs to help pupils and teachers to grow are not at all common in rural supervisory units. Hall¹ reports that in 1921 only two county districts in Ohio were planning their supervision work, whereas in 1924 about one-third of the supervisors followed definite supervision programs. A recent study² covering forty states indicates that less than 25 per cent of the rural supervisors have formulated objectives and procedures in supervision.

Why supervisors fail to plan their work. Supervision is still somewhat of a chance, hit-or-miss affair consisting of routine classroom visitation with a varied criticism of details, with a vague purpose, and no clear goal. The problems stressed pertain to discipline, community relationships, playground supervision, housekeeping, condition of outhouses, supplies, attendance-record books, reports, ventilation, and the methods of instruction observed. The supervisor attempts to perform two functions: first, to inspect schoolroom conditions and evaluate the work of the teacher; second, to improve the teaching situation that presents itself.

The inspectorial function of the administrator occupies a dominant position in much of our rural-school supervision. This is due to the fact that numerous statutory requirements concerning schools must be enforced either by the county superintendent or

¹ H. E. Hall, "A Study of School Supervision in the County Districts in Ohio," *Ohio Schools*, Vol. 4, No. 4 (April, 1926), pp. 106-109.

² Mabelle G. Bush, *County Supervisory Programs*, unpublished study, the University of Wisconsin, 1927.

by the rural supervisor. Where county superintendent and rural supervisor are one, the legal duties of the county superintendent frequently require so much time and attention that his inspectorial function overshadows his function as a supervisor and during his infrequent visits to schools he checks on conditions as an inspector instead of acting in a service relationship to the teacher. No supervisory program is planned or carried out.

The failure definitely to plan supervision is due also in part to the belief that one cannot anticipate the problems of the classroom teacher. It is held that each classroom, each teacher, and each pupil is unique and unlike any other. Brim³ calls attention to the fact that "each child is unique, bringing to the situation not only a force to be considered, but a unique quality to be jealously guarded and carefully nurtured. Each individual varies with others and himself varies with time, place, and increasing experience." It is assumed that the supervisor, thus meeting novel and unique situations in each classroom, must in each contingency take into consideration all of the forces at work, including the interests, bents, abilities, and limitations of each pupil; the interests, bents, abilities, and limitations of the teacher; not forgetting his own abilities, interests, limitations, and purposes; and work out for this situation an effective plan for utilizing and directing them to secure for each individual concerned values contributing to his happiness and highest development.

An analogy is drawn between the work of the physician and the supervisor. The physician visits the sick room of a new patient with no planned procedure and no preconceived notions concerning the nature of the illness. The symptoms are observed, a diagnosis is made, and remedial and corrective treatment is applied after a study of the case. Although this is true, it is equally true that at times epidemics of smallpox, typhoid, influenza, and other contagious and infectious diseases sweep through communities. Plans are drawn up and procedures de-

³ Orville G. Brim, "The Nature of Aim and Its Bearing upon Supervision," *Journal of Educational Method*, September, 1926.

tailed for the stamping out of the disease. It is also true that in any number of sick-room cases, certain specific procedures, such as dieting, are recommended for a number of patients.

The supervisor must meet each unique classroom situation and in addition certain common "lacks." It is quite true that when the supervisor enters the classroom for the first time, he does not know the situation he will find, nor the channel through which his services may best be rendered. He must consider the forces at work before a plan is made. The program of supervision should not be an administrative device based upon standards determined outside of the classroom. In this respect the supervisor must act as does the physician. He must diagnose, observe symptoms, apply remedies to control symptoms and plan corrective treatment to remedy permanently the teaching weakness. However, after he has visited a number of classrooms, he will find that, in addition to meeting novel situations, he is meeting certain situations common to school after school. Pupils need definite training in study habits. Teachers have inadequate knowledge of the new developments in the teaching of reading. Language-teaching is not functioning in eliminating spoken and written English errors. The methods of teaching spelling are archaic. Such prevailing difficulties, after conferences with teachers, and after testing surveys, may well engage the attention of the entire teaching force of the county. Such a concerted attack upon common difficulties does not preclude the establishment of a true service relationship between teacher and supervisor.

If analogy is of value in justifying a supervisory program, one may find it in abundance. The sales manager of a department store plans with his associates the details of a coming merchandise sales campaign—this in spite of the fact that each salesman must, in carrying out the details of the campaign, deal with many unique individuals who are prospective purchasers. The architect plans, first mentally, then on his drawing table, the details of a house before a nail is driven. The surveyor establishes his point of reference and lays out his highway before a shovel

of earth is dug—this in spite of the fact that in the actual construction daily problems must be solved. The teacher is expected to plan her work, at times in some detail, at other times in large working units. She is informed that she who does not plan “is one in darkness, whose thought is a veering gale, and who never cometh to port with unerring course, but with ineffectual mind tasteth a thousand excellencies.” A definite, well planned supervisory program is as essential to the highest service of the rural supervisor as is a sales plan, a house plan, a surveyor’s point of reference, or a teaching plan to the success of the one who merchandises, creates house architecture, builds roads, or guides the activities of school children.

Barr and Burton⁴ summarize the reasons for the lack of good supervisory planning as follows:

1. The concept of supervision as the improvement of teaching is still new. The inspectorial idea still persists in many places. In many others where practice is better than inspection, it is limited rather narrowly to classroom supervision.
2. The great mass of supervisors are still inadequately trained for the work.
3. The pressing nature of administrative and clerical duties prevents proper attention to comprehensive supervisory planning.
4. Lack of clear definition of function and allocation of duty for superintendent, principal, and supervisor is an obstacle to the development of supervisory programs.
5. The fact that the teaching body is far from homogeneous makes the work difficult to plan.

In the five years since this statement was made, much progress has been made in eliminating the above reasons, chiefly the first and fourth.

Distinction between a supervisory plan and a supervisory program. In order to avoid confusion a *supervisory plan* is here understood to include a statement of the immediate aims, the agencies to be employed, and the activities that are included in the

⁴ A. S. Barr and William H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (D. Appleton & Co., 1926), p. 91.

set-up of work by a school supervisor for himself and his collaborators for any current year or portion of a year. A succession of yearly plans or several parallel coördinated plans may make up the activities incorporated in a program of supervision.

A program of supervision, however, is assumed to involve a much more comprehensive view of the entire field of service open to the supervisor. It implies the setting up of a definite number of far-reaching major outcomes, that should be capable of accomplishment over a period of several years. It includes among its agencies for carrying out its provisions, allied local, state, and national organizations for social and educational betterment. It is so expressed that it can be understood by the general public as well as by those in educational work, and it provides for the coöperation of pupils and patrons, as well as those directly responsible for results. It is in harmony with the state and national educational programs, but it is based entirely upon predetermined needs of the local situation. Most important of all, it is so definitely organized that it can be carried to completion, regardless of changes in the personnel of the local leadership.

In other words, a supervisory plan bears the same relationship to a supervisor's work that a teacher's daily lesson plan bears to her work. It is absolutely necessary that a teacher have a definite well organized daily lesson plan clearly in hand. However, the best of lesson plans would be of little worth unless the teacher had made it in the light of a full knowledge of a well balanced course of study in that subject. It is also true that the teacher cannot prepare a worth-while daily lesson plan if she has only the course of study in that subject in mind. She must also have a general understanding of the entire school curriculum. These requirements are necessary to prevent over- or under-emphasis of a given subject or any part of a given subject; also to enable the teacher to lead the pupils to see the bearing that each part of a given subject has upon the other subjects that he studies.

Just as it is necessary therefore for a teacher to know the course of study for each subject that she teaches and the entire

curriculum as well, so it is necessary for a county supervisor to have a comprehensive program, and from that to work out a series of definite plans. The supervisor, rural or urban, who keeps his entire field of service constantly in mind with each element in its proper relation to the whole is protected against the over-emphasis of some features and the consequent omission of others that may be just as vital. When this general program is worked out in terms of successive, well articulated, detailed plans, the result is the realization of one objective after another as set up in the original program. In this connection it is of course assumed that the supervisor has a workable philosophy of education that comprises a recognition of the wide range of individual differences that always exists among teachers as well as among children.

As fast as one major objective is attained, another may be substituted. Thus a program becomes the continuous setting forth of a flexible group of attainable objectives calling for the highest type of service available both from those supervised and from those who direct the educational activities of any given county-school system. Just as the teacher must guide her pupils into habits of independent self-direction by her skilled leadership, so the superintendent must organize his supervisory activities in such a way that his teachers grow through their own group leadership. In brief, the able supervisor is working for the same outcomes in skills, attitudes, and appreciations in the field of teaching that the classroom teacher is working for in the field of learning. The *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence says: ⁵

The functions of supervision are inspection, research, training, and guidance. In an ideal situation these functions would be working in perfect harmony. Inspection will discover the defects to be corrected, as well as those procedures that merit encouragement. Research will reveal the principles that make for improvement. Training will familiarize

⁵ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930, p. 18.

teachers with these principles. Guidance will provide the inspiration and material environment necessary to their incorporation in practice. Inspection then will play its part again to be followed by further research, teacher-training, and guidance.

With such a definition of supervision at hand, it is evident at a glance that a long-term comprehensive program is absolutely necessary in supervision if the ends desired are to be realized. Any one of the various parts of the field of supervision above indicated is sufficient for several years of work, yet common sense shows that several of the activities mentioned must be carried on at the same time if educational practice is to be maintained at an acceptable level.

The county superintendent's supervisory program, therefore, is an application of the principles of program-making to the technique of rural- and village-school supervision.

Standards for planning a supervisory program. Much of the criticism aimed against the announced supervisory program is brought about by failure on the part of supervisors to observe certain fundamental principles in planning it. The principles to be observed are few and simple but essential to a supervisory program that will guide intelligently and democratically the educational forces of the county.

1. *The supervisory program should be an expression of the combined judgment of teachers, supervisors, and others concerning the known and felt needs of the pupils and teachers of the rural schools.* Supervision fails if it ceases to be democratic. Supervisory programs indicate the direction of effort for both teachers and supervisors. Teachers know the growth needs of their pupils and should be important influences in shaping the program for the year. In many supervisory districts the chief points of emphasis in the next year's program are determined at a conference of supervisors and teachers held before the close of the school year. This coöperation by teachers is illustrated in the report by M. Clarice Bersch in giving a review of the super-

visory activities in the Grantsville unit of Garrett County, Maryland, for the year 1924-25. She says:⁶

As an outgrowth of reflection upon the year's work and outstanding needs in individual schools, teachers made suggestions for the current year's objectives at a final group meeting held last year. These suggestions with a few additions were submitted to the teachers for approval at the opening institute.

In another Maryland county certain objectives were determined as a result of the performance of children on tests in the various school subjects. The tests were prepared by the supervisor with the idea of finding out how well children were succeeding in certain values stressed for each subject. For example, in arithmetic, accuracy of computation and rate of working were tested. In history and geography good study habits—methods of work, thinking as well as memorizing, organization—were tested in these two exercises for fifth-grade children:

1. Write a paragraph telling of the different ways in which people helped to win the Revolutionary War.
2. A recent textbook in geography contains the statement: "China has many times as many canals as Holland has."
 - (a) Write four questions that you would need to answer in order to find out why this is true.
 - (b) Find the answer to any *one* of these questions in your textbook and copy a statement, or statements, which contains the answer. Give the page or pages on which you find it.

Similar exercises were prepared for children in the other grades. As a result of what children were able to do with these exercises, the supervisor and teachers formulated specific objectives which constituted, in large part, the supervisory program. The exercises revealed that many children seemed to have no method of study; many children did not remember what they had "studied"; many children had little ability to summarize or

⁶ M. Clarice Bersch, "Making the Most of Supervision," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 7, No. 1 (September, 1925), p. 9.

to organize. The supervisor's program now includes as one of its major objectives "Teaching Children to Study."⁷

In discovering objectives a careful study of the situation is necessary. For surveying the classroom practices of a system, Brueckner presents the following summary:⁸

- A. Technics stressing the pupil
 1. Survey by means of standard tests
 2. An analysis of the activities engaged in by pupils. This may be done by recording the number of times items are observed, or by describing conditions or by making comparisons
 3. Consideration of psychological factors, such as attention, errors made, and so on
 4. Collecting opinions of pupils, particularly in regard to curriculum material
 5. Studying the attitudes of pupils by observing their behavior in significant situations
 6. Evaluating various of the preceding analyses
- B. Technics stressing the teacher
 1. Analysis of the activities of the teacher
 2. A study of the difficulties met by teachers
 3. An analysis of errors and procedures
 4. A summary of judgments on the skill of teachers
 5. Evaluation of levels of teaching skill judged in terms of any of several criteria
 6. Trade tests
- C. Technics stressing various elements in lessons
 1. Studying the time allotted to subjects or phases of learning
 2. Analyzing the nature and order of activities within the lesson
 3. Studying the objectives of lessons
 4. Determining and evaluating levels of teaching
 5. Using of check lists and observation blanks
 6. Studying and describing type lessons
 7. Gathering and analyzing materials used in lessons
 8. Analyzing instructional conditions surrounding the teaching situation

⁷ Reported by May Thompson, Supervisor of Schools in Caroline County, Maryland.

⁸ Leo J. Brueckner, "Developments in Techniques for Securing Factual Data Concerning Classroom Teaching," Ch. ii in *Scientific Method in Supervision, Second Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1929.

Teachers often appear indifferent and their work is routine in character because they have no clear understanding of the objectives of their work. A program of supervision centers attention upon the educational goal. With it before them, these teachers can plan intelligently, criticize constructively, and coöperate whole-heartedly. After a program has been planned, it should continue to be a democratic undertaking. Various groups throughout the county should be consulted from time to time in order to obtain all the advantages that accrue from the properly coordinated effort of those interested in education. The following groups should participate in carrying out the supervisory program.

a. The county cabinet. In every county there are other elective or appointive leaders outside of the school staff who are anxious to lend their support to school interests when they understand them. It is true that they cannot participate directly in a supervisory program, but they can coöperate in building up sentiment for financial support of rural supervisors, for clerical help, for progressive school legislation, and other necessities in carrying forward a modern program. To this end it is most helpful to have a county cabinet in each county composed of such leaders as the county agent, county nurse, county parent-teacher's association president, principal of the local institution training teachers, chairman of the county board of supervisors or county board of education, or any other county official. Such a cabinet can become thoroughly familiar with a county superintendent's supervisory program, and the cabinet should be one of the most important working groups in carrying such a program through to completion.

b. Teacher-training and supervising groups. One of the greatest handicaps to supervisory efficiency comes from the lack of unity in methods and standards between those who train teachers and those who supervise them in the field. To endeavor to correct this wasteful condition every program of supervision should provide for regular group meetings and for coöperative classroom visi-

tation of graduates by representatives both from the teacher-training school and from the county supervisory staff.

c. High-school principals' group. In nearly every county there are small high schools whose principals are expected to supervise the elementary grades as well as the high school itself. Many times these men are unfamiliar with the local curriculum or methods, and perhaps they may be unfamiliar with elementary work in general. Group conferences arranged for these principals to assist them with their common problems not only will forward the general county program, but also will increase the amount and quality of supervision these principals will carry on. Often these group meetings may be held in coöperation with the elementary supervisors and high-school supervisor from the state department of education.

d. Elementary-principals' group. To-day more than ever before the elementary principal is regarded as one of the most important figures in elementary education. He has his own national organization and some of our most fruitful investigations are being made under his direction. In counties in which there are groups of elementary principals, the county superintendent should suggest that they meet together for study and conference and that they affiliate themselves with the national organization in order that the county may benefit from the nationwide contacts that would thus be made. This group should meet also with the county superintendent for mutual exchange of ideas.

e. Committees of teachers. The teachers in every county should be organized in township groups, or around convenient centers for continuous study and for social contacts. Some of the most progressive activities, such as coöperative work on study contracts, subject-matter units, differentiated assignments, new-type tests, and curriculum-revision, have resulted from these group meetings in states where they are being encouraged.

f. Groups of county superintendents. No one person can hope to realize his highest possibilities without the stimulation of his fellow workers; therefore, county superintendents should meet

together in small groups for professional study and to work out coöperative enterprises.

On November 14, 1927, the county superintendents of Wisconsin decided to meet by congressional districts under the leadership of one of their number as local chairman to carry on professional study. They also advocated the continuation of the plan of having county superintendents and supervising teachers meet in various portions of the state to formulate intercounty eighth-grade examination questions. In addition they endorsed the formulation of a statewide supervisory program in coöperation with and under the leadership of the State Department of Public Instruction and the University of Wisconsin.

g. Groups composed of county and state leaders. Every county program of supervision should articulate with the state's supervisory program, which includes teacher-training both for service and in service. Perfect coöperation and unity of purpose, harmony of standards, and tolerance in details of method must obtain between state and county supervision. This is brought about by conferences, coöperative visitation of classrooms, and by frequent exchange of ideas through letters and bulletins. Regular regional conferences of these leaders are most fruitful in any county or state program.

h. The children's groups. The school exists for the children and no program of supervision is complete without the help of the children. Through their clubs and societies they should become acquainted with the county supervisory program and they should be given a part to play in it through debates, essays, posters, and so on.

i. Groups of parents. Little needs to be said about the necessity of enlisting the help of the parents and other residents of each school district in carrying out a progressive supervisory program. Every school should have its Parent-Teachers Association, affiliated with the state and national organization. To them should be explained the use of standard tests, the need for reference books, the reasons for technique that is different

from that which was used when they were in school. This is a part of the supervisory program just as much as is the guidance of teacher activity, for without the intelligent coöperation of the parents even the best teacher cannot secure the results she deserves.

2. *The supervisory program should be flexible.* One of the outstanding contributions of educational research has been the data revealing the great individual differences that exist among children. These differences are due to variations in mental ability, environmental conditions, pupil aptitudes and interests, occupational interests, and so on. The same differences exist among teachers. Other factors contributing to these differences among teachers are the variations in their academic and professional training, their age range, tenure conditions, and so on. Added to these we find differences among schools due to varying amounts and types of working tools and equipment, prevailing nationality, social conditions, community occupations, and religious affiliations.

The situations due to these differences require a flexible educational program for the county. Although its objectives should be definite, the standards set should not be prescriptive. Prescriptive standards have a tendency to lower the level of teaching activity to that of mere technique and drill. Where supervisors outline plans and methods and prescribe materials of instruction, teachers become the instruments to carry out their detailed plans. Prescriptive standards and rigid programs of supervision prevent the functioning of originality and initiative on the part of teachers and do not permit teaching in terms of the growth needs of children.

In Oakland County, Michigan,⁹ in 1924 at a meeting of teachers it was agreed that the special effort of the teachers and supervisors should be directed toward the improvement of teaching in the subjects of reading, arithmetic, language, and spelling. No

⁹ W. C. Hoppes, "The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County," *Michigan Education Association Bulletin*, No. 7, 1926, p. 15.

definite standards were set in this program. Improvement was to be interpreted in terms of the individual child. The statement of aim can be criticized in that no approximate goal was set. Such an approximation gives a worth-while incentive to the teachers and to the supervisors.

In Garrett County, Maryland, the following objectives were adopted for the school year 1924-25:

THE YEAR'S OBJECTIVES

As an outgrowth of reflection upon the year's work and outstanding needs in individual schools, teachers made suggestions for the current year's objectives at the final group meeting held last year. These suggestions with a few additions were submitted to the teachers for approval at the opening institute. They were adopted in this form:

- I. A continuation and extension of the previous year's objectives
 1. Attainment of standard ratings in reading and in the four fundamental operations of arithmetic
 2. The daily use of a manual in teaching geography
 3. Correct writing position made habitual with improvement in form to the point of legibility in all grades and a corresponding increase in rate.
 4. Better habits of study fixed for pupils of all grades and evident in intelligent use made of all "seatwork" periods in the daily program. An exhibition of seatwork and teaching devices at regular group meetings
 5. A decrease in retardation
 6. Strengthen and federate the Parent-Teacher Associations in graded and two-teacher schools. Organize at least ten Parent-Teacher Associations in one-teacher schools. Initiate a series of "Better School Socials" with emphasis upon the observance of special days
 7. Increase the equipment of schools with libraries, dictionaries, flags, and so on, working toward standardization
- II. A wider and more intelligent use made of libraries, supplementary reading materials, and periodicals with mastery the goal for each directed reference given
- III. Attainment of standard rating in written composition and improvement in oral expression. Take initial steps in forming a course of study in English

- IV. Daily planning of work by teachers; minimum kind and amount determined for teachers on the basis of training
1. All teachers to turn in at least two plans for the teaching of English each month
 2. (a) Teachers holding first-grade certificates will plan all lessons daily, keep brief notes on topics and procedures in all classes
 - (b) Teachers with second-grade certificates will make
 - (1) A notation of topics in all subjects
 - (2) Complete daily plans for language in all grades
 - (3) Daily use of manuals in spelling, reading, and geography
 - (c) Teachers holding third-grade certificates will master the assigned subject matter in preparation for each day's lesson which they teach
- V. Fewer teachers' meetings than were held last year with all dates and topics to be tentatively determined upon in September and plans carefully made to have all conferences conducted on a higher professional plane

The first objective concerns the extension of the previous year's program. Not all children can nor should attain standard ratings in reading and in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic. Many pupils should exceed the standard rating; some pupils will not reach them. Such a standard if interpreted literally is too inflexible. Points 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 are flexible and permit improvement consistent with conditions which control progress. Objective IV makes provision for flexibility necessary because of the varying professional and academic training of teachers. The objectives as a whole give a rather wide latitude to the teacher and permit her teaching in terms of the activities of school children, excepting where certain rather rigid qualitative and quantitative standards must be set.

In general, supervisory programs are kept flexible by abstaining from setting fixed goals such as a fixed reading rate in words per minute for a given grade. Flexible programs recognize the individual differences that exist among pupils and teachers. Flexible programs are simple and not expressed in too great detail. Flexible supervisory programs result from teacher participation.

In the actual construction of the supervisory program the teachers make provision for contingencies that the supervisor working alone cannot anticipate.

3. *The program should start from a fact basis.* Before a county supervisory program is formulated the situation that exists in the schools of the county should be ascertained. The conditions that exist may be learned by a study of changes in the personnel of the teaching force, by a countywide testing survey, through an analysis of the results of county examinations or local school examinations, from information obtained from high-school authorities concerning the outstanding weaknesses of rural-school graduates, from the reports of supervisors based upon classroom visits made during the preceding year, from the difficulties and problems of teachers brought out in conferences and group teachers' meetings. Every resource available should be used to accumulate accurate information concerning the schools, the needs of the pupils, and the problems of teachers, since such facts point out the direction and type of service to be rendered by the supervisor.

The following tables indicate certain progressive conditions

TABLE III.—COMPARISON OF CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS IN HOWARD COUNTY WHITE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN SCHOOL YEARS ENDING IN JUNE, 1923, AND 1928 *

KIND OF CERTIFICATE	WHITE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS HAVING						ALL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS			
	One Teacher		Two Teachers		Three or More Teachers		Number		Per Cent	
	1923	1928	1923	1928	1923	1928	1923	1928	1923	1928
First Grade	4	18	2	11	12	24	18	53	27.7	89.8
Second Grade	10	3	6	1	4	..	20	4	30.8	6.8
Third Grade	10	2	2	..	2	..	14	2	21.5	3.4
Provisional	5	..	4	..	4	..	13	0	20.0	0.0
	29	23	14	12	22	24	65	59	100.0	100.0

* Reported by Gail Chadwick in "Supervisory Activities in Maryland," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 3 (September, 1928), p. 13.

TABLE IV.—PER CENT OF STANDARD READING SCORE MADE BY MEDIAN PUPIL IN HOWARD COUNTY IN MAY, 1923 AND 1928 *

GRADE	WHITE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS HAVING					
	One Teacher		Two Teachers		Three or More Teachers	
	1923	1928	1923	1928	1923	1928
2	62	...	105	...	98
3	65	120	74	120	68	138
4	75	100	81	119	89	113
5	87	99	92	111	80	112
6	88	97	89	99	95	109
7	96	106	103	101	100	106

* Reported by Gail Chadwick in "Supervisory Activities in Maryland," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 3 (September, 1928), p. 13.

that came about in a county during a five-year period—an increase in the number of trained teachers and an improvement in the ability of children throughout the county in reading. Those changes present a real challenge to supervisory effort.

By studying in the foregoing tables the extent to which the certificates of teachers improved over a five-year period and the extent to which pupils improved, the supervisor may well ask herself such questions as these by way of determining upon a modification of the supervisory program:

1. Am I stimulating these better trained teachers to make use of the findings of research, to work on various problems in connection with course of study revisions? Am I raising my supervision to higher levels as my teachers become stronger?

2. Are we sufficiently enriching our county curriculum in the social studies, literature, and music? Now that children can *read*, can we not expect them to do more real thinking, solve more problems?

The use of a test survey of a county to determine the basis for a supervisory program is illustrated in the plan followed in

Pitt County, North Carolina.¹⁰ Their suggested program of testing for the year follows:

SUGGESTED PROGRAM OF TESTING FOR THIS YEAR

I. Outline of Purposes and Plan of Procedure

1. Purposes
 - a. To grade and classify pupils of the elementary grades (1 to 7).
 - b. To find out present achievement in a few important school subjects and at the same time to note the weaknesses discovered
 - c. To determine the bases for program of professional training of the classroom teacher
2. Plan of Procedure
 - a. Selection of experimental school
 - b. Selection of tests
 - c. Dates for intensive work on program for experimental school
 - d. Dates for demonstration days
 - e. Follow-up work
 - (1) in experimental school
 - (2) in each of the central schools
 - f. Checking results—Promotion standards
 - g. Recording the important outcomes of testing program
 - h. Publicity program for committeemen, patrons, and community organizations

II. Explanatory Notes

1. Purposes:
 - a. We are conscious of our responsibility in the matter of properly grading and classifying pupils, as this must of necessity be done before pupils can be expected to make satisfactory progress during the year. They must be placed in the grades where the work is not too difficult nor too easy for them, and in so far as practicable under present conditions they should be grouped homogeneously within the grades.
 - b. An important principle in education in its relation to the development of the several powers and abilities of the pupil is to find out where to begin and where the emphasis in classroom work should be placed. In determining the starting point and in discovering weaknesses in the pupil's development scientific tests are invaluable and therefore should be a part of the program for the improvement of classroom instruction.

¹⁰ Pitt County Teachers' Handbook, Pitt County Board of Education, North Carolina, 1925-26, p. 32.

c. A study of the results of a battery of tests should reveal the greatest needs of the pupils in the classroom studies. This should help in determining the program of professional study for the teachers and point out where the emphasis should be placed in the work of improving results in certain school subjects.

2. Plan of procedure:

In order to realize the purposes set forth above it will be necessary definitely to organize the program of testing from two viewpoints:

1. A program of demonstration of the best procedure in the use of scientific tests by the supervisor in a specially selected, centrally located school.
2. An observation and directed study program by means of which the supervisor trains the principals of the several large-type schools of the county to carry out the unified program of testing as demonstrated by the supervisor in the experimental school.

In order to carry out this program it will be necessary to call principals of schools together at the experimental school for a day's study of the program. It is suggested that the supervisor conduct the testing program in the experimental school the first and second weeks of the first month and that the principals of all schools meet the second Friday of the month for study of the situation *which the supervisor, principal, and teachers of the school have worked to improve*. This will enable them to begin their program the following week. As the supervisor visits their schools later on, she will be ready to lend the needed assistance after having worked and studied more intensively one situation rather than having spent the time in attempting to carry on a program of testing in several schools. Similar meetings with the principals should be held in January to discuss the present status of the program, and near the close of the school term to study the checking-up program and determine countywide standards for promotions.

The selection of tests for each program should be made by the supervisor with reference to a unified program for the individual school and for all schools of the county coöperating.

All results as tabulated should be filed as supplementary data to the principal's report to the supervisor.

Attention is called to (b) and (c) under *Purposes*. Present achievement and weaknesses are to be ascertained through the testing program. The results of the tests will aid in determining the basis for a program of professional training of the classroom

teacher. In order that teachers and principals may learn the technique of testing, a demonstration school was selected and the best procedure in the use of scientific tests was demonstrated there by the supervisor.

A testing survey is not always sufficient to furnish an adequate fact basis for a supervisory program. In a supervisory district in Wisconsin, the county superintendent and the rural supervisors studied carefully all final examination papers written throughout the county in the spring. A study of these papers indicated certain outstanding weaknesses in reading and arithmetic. In order to obtain further data bearing upon the situation, a testing survey was undertaken in 120 schools. This survey verified the opinion formed after the study of examination papers and the facts discovered formed the basis for a supervisory program for the year. In another county a social and a health survey were made. A majority of the pupils came from homes where foreign customs in food and dress prevailed. The kind and amounts of food eaten, habits relating to sleep, dress, ventilation, and so on, were ascertained. A physical, a medical, and a dental examination were given to each child in the supervisory district by the county health nurse assisted by local physicians and dentists. The play and study activities of children were observed by teachers. The facts accumulated by this survey formed the basis for a health program for the year. This program included correction of physical defects, functional teaching of personal hygiene, hot lunches at the schools, supervised play activities, and so on.

At first glance it might seem that a survey could be made once for all and a program of several years' duration set up based on the findings. Such is not the case in county supervision, for each year sees a large number of teachers leaving, many new ones beginning work for the first time, and many more changing from one position to another. Besides this, large numbers of families move in and out of the county, so that the most carefully conducted survey of teaching technique and of teaching results would have its value in specific applications greatly discounted

shortly after it had been completed. Fortunately, however, there are in nearly every county certain localities that are more or less stable and typical situations can be chosen from among these. Often with the coöperation of research departments in colleges such survey activities as classroom visitation, group intelligence testing, and achievement testing can be carried out on a small scale and results obtained which are about as reliable as would result from a county wide survey under the conditions described.

No supervisory program can be carried out on anything that approaches a scientific basis until the most complete survey possible with the means at hand has been completed. It is best to give achievement tests in only one or two subjects at a time, and while this is going on, it should be the subject of the group teachers' meetings. Under competent guidance teachers should score the papers and coöperate in drawing the conclusions from the findings regarding individual pupil needs. Most surveys lose their effectiveness because the people who most need to know every detail of their application see only the printed column when all the tabulations have been made and the individual child has become just one of the tallies composing a number that was used to compute an average or a correlation.

Engaging in a critical evaluation of the findings in order to set up desirable objectives. After each part of any survey is completed, representatives from the different groups that are organized should consult together to determine what the findings indicate and what problems they raise. With such a procedure, there will be no lack of coöperation in carrying forward whatever policies are decided upon. Such a critical examination involves the study of the findings in comparison with other local surveys and with similar findings in other localities. It requires the study of contemporary professional literature on the subjects being tested in order that the aims set up may be in harmony with the best established practices of the day. After these objectives are tentatively selected they should be submitted not only to other supervisors but also to subject-matter specialists and to the re-

search departments whose coöperation may have been secured for final suggestions.

Objection is sometimes raised that supervisory programs frequently become mere administrative machinery with exact and prescriptive objectives that define the teacher's procedure so rigidly that she is not able to render her greatest contribution to her pupils. Brim¹¹ in commenting on the scope of the supervisory program says, "If we state definitely the objectives or outcomes for the year, the outline of each objective with specific and detailed procedures utilized in achieving the objectives, we are thinking not in terms of an intelligent teacher dealing with unique individuals but in terms of administrative efficiency and definite businesslike procedure."

Ideally, with well trained, mature teachers of successful experience who have continued to grow professionally, it might be unnecessary to provide for supervision for rural schools. However, we are facing a condition, not a theory in rural education.

Means by which the supervisory program is put into effect. Having formulated the objectives in a supervisory program, the supervisor with the coöperation of teachers must determine the means by which the objectives will be realized. These means, most of which are discussed in detail in Chapters VIII to XIV, include the following:

1. Teachers' meetings and group conferences
2. Committees of teachers assigned to study special features of the program
3. Organized classroom visits and individual conferences
4. Exchange visits by teachers
5. Demonstration teaching
6. Supervisory bulletins
7. Extension classes for teachers
8. A selected professional library
9. Training classes for teachers covering such aspects of the program as diagnostic and progress testing, remedial teaching, and so on

¹¹ Orville G. Brim, "The Nature of Aim and Its Bearing upon Supervision," *Journal of Educational Method*, September, 1926.

10. Experimental work and research
11. Supplying the materials of instruction necessary to carry out program
12. Reading circle work

Pittman, in reporting the means used in realizing his supervisory program, calls attention particularly to the supervisory tours or visits and the meetings of teachers at which demonstration teaching is done. A portion of his zone calendar is given below:¹²

1. Supervisory Tours

September 28 to October 10—Initial survey of the experimental and control groups of schools

October 27 to November 1—First supervisory tour. Improvement in the speed and comprehension of silent reading

November 17 to November 22—Second supervisory tour. Language: Elimination of spoken errors

December 15 to December 19—Third supervisory tour. Spelling: Agricultural words as an agency for awakening a community interest in schools and developing a group consciousness

January 18 to January 23—Fourth supervisory tour. Arithmetic: How to teach the four fundamental operations

February 15 to February 19—Fifth supervisory tour. Reading: How to secure effective oral reading

March 15 to March 19—Sixth supervisory tour. Language: How to develop a love for good literature. Health: How to develop habits of health

April 11 to April 17—Seventh supervisory tour. Spelling: Forming the habit of correctly spelling the words most often used

2. Teachers' Meetings

January 24—Fifth meeting. Warner District No. 1. 10 A.M. to 3 P.M.

(a) Two arithmetic demonstrations by teachers

(b) Discussion of questions on arithmetic arising during the month

(c) Demonstration by the supervisor in teaching oral reading

(d) Discussion of demonstration

(e) Noon. Community dinner

(f) Penmanship demonstration by specialist

(g) Program by children

¹² M. S. Pittman, *The Value of School Supervision* (Warwick & York, 1921), pp. 113-114.

The statement of objectives and procedure in this plan is open to criticism. Undoubtedly too much is attempted during the year. A program that includes improvement in reading, language, spelling, and arithmetic makes intensive work impossible. The procedures for carrying the program into effect are limited to class visits, teachers' meetings, and demonstrations. Nevertheless, it is definite and gives evidence of careful planning.

An additional illustration of procedures used in realizing objectives is found on pages 84 and 85. The Pitt County, North Carolina, program presented there is a testing program. The procedures include testing, experimentation, demonstrations, committee work, teachers' meetings, and directed study work for principals.

The supervision program for Wood County, Ohio, quoted by Barr and Burton¹³ utilizes the teacher's reading circle work of the state. Attention is called to this very effective correlation of required professional reading circle work with a supervisory program. Required professional reading for certification purposes is usually a formal gesture. It is done by teachers under statutory compulsion without any definite professional problem in mind. It becomes valuable, voluntary, and motivated when done as a part of a coöperative enterprise to improve instruction.

In Dane County, Wisconsin, one of the objectives of the program of supervision dealt with the improvement of music in the rural schools. The radio station of the University of Wisconsin was utilized and programs of music were sent out to the rural schools by radio. In a group of schools without radio equipment the same program was presented by the rural teacher. Tests were given in order to evaluate the music instruction in the experimental and the control schools. It was found that radio instruction in music by an expert was more effective than classroom instruction by the teachers. In the same county the teachers were enrolled in an extension class in rural school music taught by a

¹³ A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (D. Appleton & Co., 1929), pp. 95, 96.

university professor of music. The work in the extension class was closely integrated with the county supervisory program.

An essential agency in the realization of a supervisory program is the teachers' professional library. Books, magazine articles, bulletins, monographs, reports of experiments and investigations, mimeographed materials dealing with procedures, printed courses of study, and other materials that bear on the field of instruction being stressed should be collected, cataloged, and filed in some central place, such as the supervisor's or the county superintendent's home office. A reading room in connection with this professional library is valuable. This becomes a meeting place for committees of teachers working on some special phase of the supervisory program. The books and other materials are sent to teachers upon request. Traveling professional libraries are sent out to rural centers. Teachers who wish to carry on experimental work obtain reports of other experiments from this clearing house. The supervisor must bear in mind the fact that the professional growth of teachers is a result of their own activity. The professional library is a fine stimulator of teacher activity.

For a detailed discussion of other means of realizing the objectives of a program of supervision, the reader is directed to the following chapters of this text.

- Chapter VII. Classroom Visits
- Chapter VIII. Individual Conferences
- Chapter IX. Teachers' Meetings
- Chapter X. Demonstration Teaching
- Chapter XI. Supervisory Bulletins
- Chapter XII. The Course of Study
- Chapter XIII. The County Institute

Testing the progress and evaluating the results of a supervisory program. The selection of objectives and the development of means or procedures for the realization of these objectives do not complete the supervisor's responsibility in the preparation of a program. The program is not complete without provision for tests of its progress and evaluating its success. Tests are given at

the beginning of a supervisory program, usually before the objectives of the program are selected. They form a fact basis for objectives.

During the application of the program other tests should be given. These give information concerning the habits, skills, or abilities that have been acquired by pupils. They direct attention to the point at which a breakdown in learning has occurred. They indicate the point to which emphasis should be directed or shifted. They suggest that a change in the method of attack is necessary. They constitute the intelligence department of the educational army and direct the fire on the enemy. The measurement of progress should not be delayed until the completion of the supervisory program. It should go on constantly by the use of rate tests, power tests, curriculum tests, and diagnostic tests.

At the completion of the supervisory program its success or lack of success should be measured. Barr and Burton¹⁴ suggest that in some cases its success may be measured by the use of tests. In other cases a summary of expert opinion may be the only means available. In still other cases the evidence is expressed in such objective forms as printed courses of study, rating scales, organization of parent-teacher associations, and so on. The reader may obtain a detailed discussion of the methods of testing progress and the methods of evaluation of supervisory programs by consulting the following chapters of this text: Chapter VI, Supervisory Uses of Tests and Measurements; Chapter XV, The Evaluation of Supervisory Procedure.

Summary. A supervisory program is as essential to a county-school system, then, as the development of instructional units and daily lesson plans is to a teacher. Essential features of a supervisory program are: (a) definite objectives determined by teachers and the supervisor, expressed in terms of the known needs of rural pupils and teachers set upon a factual basis expressed in terms of conditions existing in the county; (b) flexi-

¹⁴ A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *op. cit.*, p. 106.

bility in standards and procedures to care for individual differences among pupils and teachers; (c) a plan of procedure acceptable both to teachers and supervisor; (d) a well developed measurement program in order to evaluate the progress and general results of the supervisory program; (e) and finally, respect for individuality and a belief that the ultimate outcome of supervision should be an independent teacher professionally curious and trained in service to be self-reliant and self-directed.

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CHAPTER IV

BUDGETING THE TIME OF THE SUPERVISOR

For most supervisors of rural schools a working day means the distribution of time and effort over such duties as visiting classrooms, conferring with individual teachers in their classrooms or at the supervisor's office, conducting group conferences, making preparation for individual and group conferences, teaching for demonstration purposes, guiding curriculum revision, engineering a testing program, considering problems of classification and promotion, evaluating textbooks, preparing professional bulletins, organizing school exhibits, and addressing parent-teacher organizations. A problem that a supervisor faces in apportioning his day is that of maintaining, in the face of such constantly recurring duties and time-consuming demands, moments for those recreational activities that bring the proper balance between work and play. Many conscientious supervisors allow themselves to be so driven with work that they look harassed, lose all sense of perspective, have no sense of humor, and neglect every interest other than "the job." They do their work competently in the narrow, technical sense, but without richness of experience, savor of adventure, or sense of human implication. They would be much more interesting human beings and much better supervisors if in the general scheme of things they recognized the importance of allowing time for rest and recreation; intellectual growth, exploration, and discovery; participation in community affairs.

The narrow interests of supervisors. It is unfortunate if one is so busy at the job of supervision that he has no time to live, no time to travel, no interest in wholesome recreation. He needs time for general reading. Teachers and supervisors, particularly in

rural areas, need to widen and enrich their reading interests. Certainly evidence of this need is not lacking. A state teachers' examination given a year or so ago included this exercise:

Mention five novels that you have recently read. Tell which one of the five you prefer and give reasons for your preference.

One of the applicants for a teaching position in that state must have considered it a "catch" question, for her reply was:

I do not read novels. I read the *Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*.

The writer of an article in one of our better type of magazines recently made the statement that "to the average teacher the resignation of the school janitor is a matter of more importance than whether the United States should or should not join the League of Nations." Supervisors and teachers need to be well informed as to current news and happenings; they need to be interested in problems of sociology and economics; they will benefit immeasurably if they cultivate a well developed taste for literature and biography.

There are opportunities for intellectual growth, exploration, and discovery in making friends with people in the business world or in the professional world—people not engaged in school work. Time is needed to stand aside, as it were, and see one's own work in perspective, to estimate its strength and its failures, to study it constructively with the idea of promoting one's own growth both personally and professionally. A supervisor develops by making constructive criticisms of himself and of others—by knowing clearly what he approves and disapproves, and by trying to justify his ideas in the light of thinking that is based upon reasoning, not upon rationalization.

It is worth while to participate in community affairs, to be somewhat of a social individual. Supervisors who assume obligations (not too many) in church, club, or charitable work, who coöperate with the public library and other public institutions often find themselves influential in a way that really counts.

How rural supervisors are spending their time. What is an equitable distribution of supervisory time and effort? How may supervision be definite and economical rather than haphazard and wasteful? It will be profitable to give careful study to these questions.

Studies have been made for the purpose of ascertaining how rural-school supervisors spend their time. Maycie Southall's study¹ presents the following facts:

Supervisory conditions and practices of 200 representative supervisors—100 city and 100 rural—were reported on a rather detailed checking list. Representative groups of specialists in supervision, superintendents employing general elementary supervisors, and teachers working in supervised systems were asked to estimate the extent of use and value of certain supervisory devices on a four-point rating scale. These ratings were supplemented by those of the supervisors, who indicated the use they were making of each device and their estimate of its value. . . .

The term "direct agencies of supervision," as used in this study, was more or less arbitrarily chosen to designate the means supervisors use when dealing directly with teacher activity for the purpose of improvement. The supervisory agencies so classified are: Classroom visitation; directed teaching; demonstration teaching; directed observation; individual conferences; and teachers' meetings, including group conferences. . . .

The table, which is considerably curtailed, summarizes the judgments of specialists, superintendents of schools, and teachers, who checked the extent to which each device should be used by general elementary supervisors and also the value placed upon each as a means of improving teachers in service. The four columns provided in the original data for rating the items according to *Use* were: "Used often or emphasized," "Used some," "Used very little," and "Not used." Those for rating the items according to *Value* were: "Very valuable," "Some value," "Little value," and "No value."

Read Table V (page 98) as follows: I. Classroom Visitation,
1. a. Visits on call. It is recommended that they be used often by

¹ Maycie Southall, *Direct Agencies of Supervision as Used by General Elementary Supervisors*, Contributions to Education, No. 66 (George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930). The quotation is from the study as reported in the *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence.

37 per cent of 200 supervisors, by 62 per cent of 50 specialists, by 18 per cent of 100 superintendents, by 19 per cent of 100 teachers.

Miss Southall summarizes the chief points gained from all ratings on the value of classroom visitation, directed teaching, demonstration teaching, directed observation, individual conferences, and teachers' meetings as follows:

1. Classroom Visitation

a. Visitation upon request is the most valuable type of supervisory visit, but approximately equal emphasis should be given to all three types; namely, visits on call, scheduled visits, and informal dropping-in visits.

b. Visits for the purpose of observation are most valuable, and should be used oftener than visits for other purposes.

c. The unannounced visits are more valuable and should be used oftener than the announced visits. The specialists, however, consider the announced visits more valuable and recommend that they be used oftener than the unannounced visits.

d. Visits at irregular intervals are more valuable and should be used oftener than visits at regular intervals.

e. Visits for a whole class period or longer are more valuable and should be used oftener than those less than a class period in length.

2. Directed Teaching

a. Directed teaching is very valuable and should be emphasized as a means of improving inexperienced teachers. It should also be used some for other teachers needing or desiring to improve along certain lines.

3. Demonstration Teaching

a. Demonstration teaching is valuable and should be used for the improvement of all teachers; but it is more valuable and should be used oftener for inexperienced teachers, and next most often, for those with specific weaknesses and teaching difficulties.

b. Demonstrations planned for a group of teachers are more valuable means of teacher improvement, and should receive greater emphasis than individual demonstrations given by the supervisor for the teachers visited.

c. Approximately equal emphasis should be given and equal value attached to demonstrations: of teaching methods, of uses of new materials and devices, and of means of adapting instruction to individual differences.

d. Emergency demonstration has little value and should be used very little, if at all.

TABLE V.—PERCENTAGE OF SUPERVISORS, SPECIALISTS, SUPERINTENDENTS, AND TEACHERS RATING CERTAIN SUPERVISORY DEVICES AS "VERY VALUABLE" AND RECOMMENDING THAT THEY BE "USED OFTEN OR EMPHASIZED"

SUPERVISORY DEVICES	USED OFTEN OR EMPHASIZED				RANK ORDER	AVER-AGE	VERY VALUABLE				RANK ORDER	AVER-AGE
	PER CENT						PER CENT					
	Super- visors	Special- ists	Superin- tendents	Teachers			Super- visors	Special- ists	Superin- tendents	Teachers		
	N* = 200	N = 50	N = 100	N = 100			N = 200	N = 50	N = 100	N = 100		
						N = 450						N = 450
I. Classroom Visitation:												
1. a. Visits on call.....	37	62	18	19	19½	34	78	88	47	45	6½	65
b. Dropping-in visits.....	44	28	30	49	17½	38	37	22	32	52	26	36
c. Scheduled visits.....	43	40	21	18	24	31	47	42	25	22	29½	34
2. a. Visits to observe teaching	95	82	58	65	1	75	77	82	57	59	4½	69
b. Visits to test children.....	25	12	11	14	33	16	43	32	26	31	31	33
c. Visits to confer with teacher.....	12	14	10	13	35	12	22	22	24	34	34	26
3. a. Unannounced visits.....	65	38	37	51	10½	48	58	24	36	54	22½	43
b. Announced visits.....	21	54	17	12	26½	26	34	58	27	16	29½	34
4. a. At irregular intervals.....	67	52	40	49	6	52	51	50	33	44	21	45
b. At regular intervals.....	26	28	19	20	30	23	37	36	21	23	32	29
5. a. Long visits, one or more periods.....	83	80	50	42	4	64	79	92	54	53	3	70
b. Short visits, less than one period.....	9	10	10	22	34	13	8	10	5	20	36	11
II. Directed Teaching:												
1. Of inexperienced teachers...	41	64	43	57	8½	50	55	76	50	65	8	62
2. Of problem teachers.....	29	44	29	32	19½	34	43	66	37	46	17	48

4. Directed Observation

a. Although directed observation is used less than any other direct agency of supervision, it is considered a very valuable means, by approximately two-thirds of the specialists and teachers, of improving inexperienced teachers.

5. Individual Conferences

a. A conference with the teacher observed is one of the most valuable and should be one of the most frequently used means of teacher improvement. The other types of school conferences, named in order of value and the frequency with which they should be used, are: conference with the principal after one or more classroom visits; with the principal before classroom visits; and with the teacher prior to observing.

b. Regular office hours for conferences are considered very valuable and are recommended for emphasis by over half of the judges.

6. Teachers' Meetings

a. Group meetings or meetings of special professional groups are considered the most valuable type of teachers' meetings, and are rated as the second most valuable supervisory means of teacher improvement. The other kinds of teachers' meetings, named in order of value and extent of use, are: principals' meetings, committee meetings, building meetings, preschool meetings, and general meetings of all the teachers of the entire system.

Miss Delia Kibbe, State Supervisor of Elementary Schools in Wisconsin, summarized the reports of the rural-school supervisors regarding their "district professional activities," during twelve days selected at random.² The total hours devoted by the supervisors to the more significant activities were as follows: class observation, 1,293; individual conferences with teachers after supervisory observation, 777; supervisory preparation for these conferences, 261; county meetings, 355; sectional meetings, 247; preparation for professional meetings, 17; demonstration teaching, 214; preparation for demonstration teaching, 92; checking building and equipment, 258; inspecting plans, registers, reports, and

² Delia Kibbe, "An Analysis of the Activities of Rural School Supervisors," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 28, January, 1928, pp. 346-352.

classifying children, 177; conferences with teachers at office, 131; preparing for visits to teachers, 95; preparing suggestions for teachers, 253; activities in the testing programs, 149; and organizing school exhibits, 45.

In other words, this means that the Wisconsin supervisors reporting to Miss Kibbe spent 30 per cent of their time in class observation and 18 per cent in individual conferences following their observation. For demonstration teaching they used 5 per cent of their time; for testing activities, 3 per cent, and for checking and inspecting administrative details, 10 per cent. This means that nearly two-thirds of their time was spent in the classroom itself.

County and sectional meetings required 14 per cent of the hours devoted to supervisory work. Another 16 per cent of the hours was needed to prepare for conferences and visits with teachers, meetings, demonstration teaching, and to set up suggestions to send to teachers. The supervisors devoted 3 per cent of the hours to conferences with teachers at the office and 1 per cent to preparing school exhibits.

Each year each of the fifty or more county supervisors in Maryland includes in her report to the state superintendent a statistical summary of the year's work. These have been summarized in Table VI and show the framework of a county supervisor's work.³ On the average, during 1928-29, a supervisor spent 133 days in field work visiting 434 teachers in 258 schools. This indicates that an average day of field work includes visits to 2 schools and 3 teachers. The reported total of 21,682 visits to classrooms during 1928-29 means that the average county elementary teacher was visited about 7 times during the year by the supervisor.

On the average, a supervisor conducted 13 teachers' meetings and attended 4 others. The supervisors in most of the counties participated in the work of parent-teacher associations, address-

³ Sixty-Third Annual Report of the State Board of Education (Baltimore, Maryland, 1929), pp. 273-277.

TABLE VI.—STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES OF FIFTY COUNTY SUPER-
YEAR ENDING

COUNTY	*VISITS TO SCHOOLS FOR SUPER- VISION	*VISITS TO TEACH- ERS FOR SUPER- VISION	TEACHERS' MEETINGS				P. T. A.'s AND PATRONS' MEETINGS	
			Conducted and Addressed		Attended		Ad- dressed	Attended
			Days	Meet- ings	Days	Meet- ings		
Allegany								
Miss Greene.....	144	304	1	2	8	19	1	2
Miss McGeady....	128	300	1	2	5.5	17	4
Anne Arundel								
Miss Parker.....	237	516	16	25	4.5	6	7	3
Miss Bersch.....	213	461	16	24	4	5	2	6
Baltimore								
Miss Crewe.....	262	669	4	7	1.5	1	7	5
Miss Grace.....	292	819	4.5	8.5	1	11.5	13	12
Miss Grogan.....	258	584	2	3	1	2	1
Miss Gray.....	255	642	6	7	1	1
Miss Hill.....	247	526	1.5	2.5	2	3.5
Miss Boettner.....	*372	*734	1	11
Miss Jessop.....	450	591	2	2	11	1
Calvert								
Miss Hardesty....	488	506	12	14	1	1	2	6
Caroline								
Miss Harwood.....	*213	334	19	2	3
Carroll								
Miss Eckhardt....	141	222	6.5	8	3	4	3
Mrs. Shipley.....	326	504	3	2
Miss Devore.....	241	268	6	6	7.5	9	4
Miss Alder.....	*231	283	6	7.5	9	3
Cecil								
Miss Crim.....	190	591	6	6	1	1	2	2
Miss Reynolds....	334	340	10	13	5	10
Charles								
Miss Bowie.....	*242	401	6	9	3	8
Dorchester								
Miss Fisher.....	203	337	20	2	10
Miss Johnson.....	345	401	7	13	1.5	3
Frederick								
Miss Woodley.....	371	6	5	5
Mrs. Sunday.....	288	3.5	4	1	1
Miss Brown.....	240	332	4.5	5	2
Miss Ott.....	201	476	8	10	9	6
Garrett								
Miss Shatzer.....	283	390	10	16	2	2	2	2
Mrs. Iturralde....	100.5	273
Miss Bannatyne...	291	366	15	25	1	2.5

* Excludes visits to schools and teachers for purposes other than supervision reported as follows: Miss Harwood, 35, excluding 6 days spent with State supervisors; Miss Alder, 3; Miss Bowie, 39; Miss Boettner, 7-13.

† Excludes non-school days other than Saturdays spent in office work reported as follows: Miss McGeady, 15; Miss Crewe, 12.5; Miss Grogan, 5; Miss Gray, 2; Miss Harwood, 6; Miss Alder, 12; Mrs. Shipley, 8.

BUDGETING THE TIME OF THE SUPERVISOR 103

VISORS OF WHITE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN MARYLAND WHO REPORTED FOR THE
JULY 31, 1929

DAYS IN FIELD WORK INCLUD- ING TESTING	† DAYS IN THE OFFICE		CONFERENCE WITH		VISITS TO OUTSIDE SCHOOLS	DAYS IN TRAVEL OUTSIDE OF COUNTY AND IN ATTEND- ANCE AT STATE CONFER- ENCES	DAYS IN ATTEND- ANCE AT EXTRA- CURRICU- LAR ACTIVITIES	DAYS LOST IN ILLNESS
	School Days	Satur- days	Prin- cipals and Teachers	Superin- tendents and Super- visors				
103.5	65	18	180	18	4	7	5.5	13.5
107	†57.5	23	150	13.5	3	5.5	3.5	5
106	50.5	28	§103	61	21	32	13.5
100	57	34	53	65	23	25	11
138.5	†28	31	45	13	1	5.5	3	6
148.5	20	36	19	13	5	6.5	2
153	†15.5	24	10	1	3.5	4	6
†146	†19	23	11	1	2	2.5	3.5
147	16.5	28	10	10	2	7	4	6
154.5	18.5	30	52	8	6	2	1	2
169	7	23	13	2	2	1	3
**129.5	29.5	19	502	20	2	5	10
139	†37	25	70	4	7	11	4	6
124	59	12	12	12	5	5	3
164	†16	7	15	6
114.5	52.5	13	41	13	1	6	2.5	1
115.5	†48	14	30	13	6	1.5	5
172	10	23	51	2	1.5
135	35	20	15	3	6
....	41	31	10	31
140	32	32.5	18	30	7	4	3
147	26.5	32	19	29	6.5	1.5
125	30	26	300	40	6	22	1
107.5	17.5	24	104	5	2	13	57.5
116	47	25	82	25	2	6	3	15
147	36.5	33	170	13	1	6	2.5
126	50	36	349	41	5	12	2
81	81	28	179	6
120.5	51.5	40	203	28	5	7	†4.5	5

† Includes one day for cause other than illness.

§ Includes 23 patrons and officials.

|| Includes days before and after the school year.

¶ Includes 8 days acting principal of Cockeysville School.

** Includes 6 days as substitute.

†† Includes 4 days spent in interests of consolidation.

TABLE VI.—

COUNTY	*VISITS TO SCHOOLS FOR SUPER- VISION	*VISITS TO TEACH- ERS FOR SUPER- VISION	TEACHERS' MEETINGS				P. T. A.'s AND PATRONS' MEETINGS	
			Conducted and Addressed		Attended			
			Days	Meet- ings	Days	Meet- ings	Ad- dressed	Attended
Harford								
Miss Naylor.....	363	451	5.5	8	2	3
Miss Grau.....	*330	599	4	7	1	1	3	5
Howard								
Miss Chadwick...	*283	*492	8.3	16	6	5
Kent								
Miss Harrison....	450	33	2	2
Montgomery								
Miss Brust.....	259	520	21.3	44	1.3	3	5	5
Miss Nilsson.....	275	516	43	84	6	10	10	5
Miss Meany.....	261	267	1.5	5	3.8	7	7	10
Prince George's								
Miss Gibbs.....	401	533	9	10	2.5	3	4	4
Miss Kemp.....	202	505	4.5	6	3	4	3	6
Miss Wright.....	187	451	6.5	8	2.5	3	1	5
Queen Anne's								
Miss Dameron....	226	429	6	10	1	5
St. Mary's								
Miss Smith.....	208	267	9.5	13	.5	1	1	3
Somerset								
Miss Wilson.....	207	338	3.5	6	1
Talbot								
Miss Thompson...	209	413	9.5	16	.5	1	6	9
Washington								
Mrs. Downin....	202	445	22	1.5	3	1
Miss Richardson..	285	374	7.5	15	2	4	1
Miss Bonser†††...	255	12	3
Wicomico								
Miss Holloway....	316	351	4	8	4.5
Mrs. Bennett.....	264	495	12	3	12
Worcester								
Miss Mundy.....	160	366	3	16	2.5	5	3	5
Mrs. Post.....	289	336	2.5	5	1.5	3	6
Total.....	11,854.5	21,682	297.6	621	88.6	159	151.5	163.5
Average for Those Reporting	257.7	433.6	7.6	12.7	2.8	4.4	4.5	4.8

* Excludes visits to schools and teachers for purposes other than supervision reported as follows: Miss Grau, 4; Miss Chadwick, 49-61; Miss Dameron, 14.

† Excludes non-school days other than Saturdays spent in office work reported as follows: Miss Chadwick, 21; Miss Brust, 15; Miss Wilson, 32; Miss Holloway, 6; Mrs. Bennett, 6.

‡ Excludes 44 nights.

§ Excludes 72 nights.

BUDGETING THE TIME OF THE SUPERVISOR 105

Continued

DAYS IN FIELD WORK INCLUDING TESTING	† DAYS IN THE OFFICE		CONFERENCE WITH		VISITS TO OUTSIDE SCHOOLS	DAYS IN TRAVEL OUTSIDE OF COUNTY AND IN ATTEND- ANCE AT STATE CONFER- ENCES	DAYS IN ATTEND- ANCE AT EXTRA- CURRICU- LAR ACTIVITIES	DAYS LOST IN ILLNESS
	School days	Satur- days	Prin- cipals and Teachers	Superin- tendents and Super- visors				
155	36	38	119	51	3	5	6.5
154.5	46	33	93	50	1.5	5	2
145.5	†33	38	72	1	6.5	10
128	25	28	60	30	3	4	5	30
127.5	§§§51.5	23	62	29	7	8.5	7.5	16
132.5	††56.3	31	64	39	6.5	7.5	1
140.3	43.8	36	261	27	1	9	3	1
131	41	29	13	7.5	2	8
142.5	26	34	151	12	7	6	15
137	21	35	114	12	6	6.5	8
132.5	†45.5	35	86	20	3	6
††86	***99	28	20	29	6	5	1
152	†15.5	33.5	10	8	4	7	1
127	54	31	65	24	3	6.5	5
139	33.5	33	157	30	2	2	6.5	3
125.5	37.5	32	203	14	4	6.5	5	4
....	19	7	1	3
129.5	†24	26.5	20	8	3	28
136.5	†31	34.5	104	20	3	13.5	2	4
129.5	42	25.5	35	28	7	4.5	2
†††124.5	†38.5	†22	21	25	3	4.5	1.5	7
6.271.3	1,854.6	1,376.5	4,456	1,057.5	139.5	358.5	164.5	278.5
133.4	37.8	28.1	103.6	22.5	3.9	7.5	4.3	5.6

§§§ Item reported as school meetings.

†† Excludes 7 visits to closed buildings.

*** Excludes 21 nights.

††† Miss Bonser not appointed until November; report incomplete.

††† Excludes 26 demonstration lessons.

AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME OF MARYLAND SUPERVISORS *

AVERAGE NUMBER
OF DAYS

IN FIELD WORK 133

IN OFFICE WORK 66

* OUTSIDE OF
COUNTY 8

LOST BY ILLNESS 6

IN RELATED
ACTIVITIES 4

* Includes days in travel and visitation outside of county and in attendance at state conferences.

ing on the average 4 or 5 meetings a year and attending 5. (See Table VI.)

Office work, including preparation for teachers' meetings, summarizing and studying tests, preparation of letters and mimeographed material for teachers, as well as conferences with superintendents, principals, and teachers required an average of 38 school days and 28 Saturdays. Of those that reported, an average of 104 conferences with principals and teachers and 23 conferences with superintendents were held during 1928-29. (See Table VI.)

Whereas such a summary is illuminating from the standpoint of the distribution of time and effort for the average county supervisor in Maryland, it is interesting to note the wide range of differences. For example, one rural supervisor spent 86 days in the field and 99 school days in the office. It is questionable whether the disproportionate amount of time spent in the office can be justified. If, however, the supervisor was directing course-of-study making or revision without any help other than that supplied by the teachers, she would need many days in the office to evaluate and organize the teachers' contributions. Another

rural supervisor spent 169 days in the field and 7 school days in the office. It is questionable whether 7 office days provide enough time to make adequate preparation for classroom visiting, for teachers' meetings, and for the mimeographed material distributed to teachers. Sometimes supervisors who feel the need of spending more time in the office making careful preparation for these phases of their work are hindered by superintendents who seem to be bothered unless their supervisors are continually in the field. Table VI shows that one supervisor conducted one teachers' meeting during the year, whereas another conducted 84.

It is important to study such information as that given in Table VI. It would be very unfair, however, to compare supervisors or to judge their work on the basis of number of visits to teachers during the year or on the basis of length of visits. Some supervisors can do finer work and accomplish much more during a visit of half an hour than many others can accomplish during a half day. The thing that really counts is not how often a supervisor visits nor the length of time he spends in the classroom, but what he does while there.⁴

A study of the supervisory visits made by 26 supervisors in Connecticut for the months of September, October, and November, 1928, showed an average of 209 classroom visits per supervisor. Of these visits 59 per cent lasted for at least 60 minutes. The length of supervisory visits expressed as under 60 minutes or 60 minutes or more had been studied for the two years preceding, and emphasis had been placed on the desirability of longer classroom visits.

A comparison of number and length of visits by the three types of supervisory officials represented among these 26 supervisors indicated that the smallest number and shortest visits were made by the 9 administrative supervisors, the largest number and

⁴ Material worthy of study on this subject may be found in *Current Problems of Supervisors, Third Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1930.

longest visits by the 8 general supervisors, the 9 primary supervisors occupying a position between the two. See Table VII.

TABLE VII.—COMPARISON OF NUMBER AND LENGTH OF VISITS BY THREE TYPES OF SUPERVISORY OFFICIALS

TYPE OF SUPERVISOR	VISITS PER SUPERVISOR, SEPTEMBER, OCTOBER, NOVEMBER, 1928	
	Average Number	Per Cent lasting 60 minutes or more
Administrative	204	49
Primary	207	63
General	216	66
Total	209	59

The problem suggested here concerns the significance of the difference in time emphasis as between general and primary supervisors. According to Mr. N. Searle Light, State Supervisor of Rural Schools in Connecticut, this problem has not been solved. He reports that the teachers have invariably asked for longer visits, and for more actual teaching by the supervisor or by teachers at teachers' meetings. As an outcome of the study, a standard was set of six long to four short visits to each teacher, with the expectation that the primary supervisors would exceed this ratio and that the administrative group would probably not quite reach it. Most of the Connecticut supervisors consider that this is a reasonable ratio over a considerable period of time. The visits, of course, are necessarily shorter in the process of getting the school organized in September, and in the later weeks of the school year in June when matters of closing and promotion are demanding attention.

Evaluating supervisory activities. How much of a supervisor's time should be spent in listening to the administrative problems of a school? Supervisors often feel that they waste time trying to bolster up teachers and principals who have personal troubles, or believe that they sometimes spend too much time going over buildings to see exhibits. One supervisor who felt that she was

wasting time due to avoidable circumstances, kept a detailed record of minutes and how they were spent in four different schools, that she might be able to show how conditions for supervisory visits may be improved.

In evaluating these visits with a group of principals, she raised the following questions: ⁵

Which visit brought the most lasting good in improving instruction?
 Would the principal and the teachers want this type of visit repeated?
 Did this visit have objectives which were well understood by the principal, teacher, and supervisor?
 Which functions best, the visits requested by the principal and teachers, or the visits initiated by the supervisor herself?
 What were the effects of the visit upon the pupils?
 Which visit was the most fatiguing to the supervisor? To the teachers?
 Which visit would you rank first from the point of view of coöperation between principal and supervisor? Between teacher and supervisor?
 Taking the visits as a whole, would you guess that there is any positive correlation between the amount of time spent by the supervisor in a building and the results secured?

Economy of time in supervision. If a supervisor is to do his work to the best advantage, and if he is to find opportunity for any activities whatever other than those that belong definitely to "the job," then he must give careful thought to the distribution of his time and effort. There are many people who seem to have great difficulty in organizing their work, in being systematic, in being punctual, in delegating details and routine to others. Their way of working is most uneconomical. The budgeting of a supervisor's time to good advantage calls not only for an abundance of

⁵ Reported by Frances Dearborn, Instructor in Education at Johns Hopkins University. For a summary of technics used to evaluate supervision, see W. H. Burton, "Evaluation of Supervision," Ch. xvii in *Educational Supervision, First Yearbook* of the National Conference on Educational Method (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928); also A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (D. Appleton & Co., 1926), Ch. viii, "Evaluating the Efficiency of Supervisors." In *Scientific Method in Supervision*, the *Second Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1929, are summarized the development and purposes of the objective study of teaching.

practical common sense, but for a fine sense of proportion or of relative values, and a good time sense. It calls for economical ways of working with which, unfortunately, some supervisors are not only unhabituated but unacquainted.

There are certain habits or ways of working that will help a supervisor to use his time economically. A few of these are mentioned here, and will be discussed briefly:

1. Evolve a good working schedule
2. Keep a record of visits to classrooms
3. Have files, bookcase, and desk convenient for work
4. Build on the work of the outgoing supervisor

Evolving a good working schedule. Besides knowing rather definitely what he is going to do day by day, the supervisor must see his work in the large perspective. He outlines his week's work, his month's work, his year's work, of which each is a part of a long-time plan that he keeps constantly in mind. Of course a supervisor's schedule must be flexible—any working plan must be varied from time to time—but in general the schedule can be followed and will contribute largely toward constructive supervisory service. One supervisor thus summarizes the advantages of a regular schedule: "It stimulates thought and planning. It saves time and energy for work. It causes the supervisor to analyze his problems. It has definite reactions on the teachers, causing them to plan their work more carefully. It increases the confidence of the teachers in the supervisor."

Relating the day's work to the supervisory program. It is surprising that many supervisors are unable to see a day's work in relation to the plan for a month or to a long-time program. Some supervisors do not know the meaning or significance of a long-time program. A county supervisor here outlines a program of supervision for a three-year period and indicates the emphases for each of the three years.⁶

⁶ Reported by Myrtle Eckhardt, Supervisor in Carroll County, Maryland.

Any program of supervision over a period of the next few years must necessarily be in the form of comprehensive aims that tend to steer the path of supervision and act as ideals that the teachers strive to reach. Some of the most important of these are as follows:

1. The use of methods based upon sound educational principles. The teachers must be made aware of these basic principles so that they can judge the success of their own methods.
2. The ability of teachers to analyze their work, experiment with ideas safely, and study results carefully; to work out their own philosophy of education, their own point of view in the various phases of curriculum-teaching and school life in general.
3. The habit of children to think more independently, to reach out into broadening experiences, to form worth-while habits for the use of their leisure time—thus fitting themselves to enjoy life more intelligently.

These general statements may be analyzed into objectives that are more specific, such as:

1. To help teachers keep in touch with the recent literature in the teaching field—both textbooks and professional books.
2. To encourage teachers to bring their own "thought-through" ideas to the meetings and conferences that are held, as well as to bring the opinions of prominent educators.
3. To insist upon large libraries in each school, consisting of both pleasure reading and reference books; a satisfactory equipment of maps, globes, and atlases, with a constant and systematic use of this material.
4. To encourage teachers to increase their own knowledge of subject matter in the courses they teach through summer-school work, home study, and teachers' meetings.
5. To get teachers and children in the habit of seeing the interdependence of the subjects in the curriculum, to think in terms of well rounded units of work. To increase the amount of illustrative material used to study these units and the number of activities growing out of them.

We believe that these goals can best be reached by stressing two subjects each year—a major and a minor one. This past year the greatest emphasis has been placed on *reading* in all elementary grades and on the *social studies* of the primary grades. Next year we shall emphasize geography and arithmetic. The following year (1929-1930) our very tentative plans include a special study of history and industrial arts. Ways and means of accomplishing these ends are constantly being considered, tried out, and either discarded or put into practice. I cannot see how more

definite plans than these mentioned can be made to cover a period of several years.

Miss Eckhardt has thus outlined a program of supervision over a three-year period and indicated that each year two subjects would be stressed. Building on what this program had already accomplished, her new *yearly plan* of work formulated for 1930-31 is worded as follows:

- I. To raise the professional level of the teaching force by securing on the part of teachers
 - A. Active participation at teachers' meetings
 - B. A study of professional books and magazines
 - C. Self-analysis and self-criticism of teaching procedures
- II. To bring about higher standards of school work, by stressing
 - A. In the social studies
 1. Wide range of subject matter through use of texts, references, illustrative material, excursions
 2. Worth-while learning activities growing out of the content work
 - B. In reading
 1. Wide reading experience through many activities
 2. Consistent work in all phases of reading (vocabulary, total meaning, central thought, following directions, skimming) resulting from the needs of the class
 3. Carefully planned library work
 - C. In art
 1. Use of many materials (clay, charcoal, calcimine, water color, paper) to express ideas gained from all types of experiences
 2. Steady growth in mastering the technique of handling these materials
 3. Every class reaching the minimum requirements in picture study as outlined in the course of study
 - D. In English
 1. Many varied activities which furnish purposes for written and oral English
 2. Pupil initiative in eradicating the most prevalent errors in speech
- III. To bring about higher standards of school living by
 - A. Making every classroom an attractive workshop
 - B. Making pupils feel an increased responsibility for all phases of school work

The foregoing lists indicate to some extent the meaning and significance of a year's objectives (most of which are *review objectives* worded in a different way), in relation to objectives which are part of a long-time program.

Keeping a record of supervisory activities. The following summary of activities by months shows a very skillful distribution of the time and effort of a supervisor who works in a county where 78 teachers are located in 42 schools.⁷ There are 6 town or graded schools, 1 three-teacher school, 7 two-teacher schools, and 28 one-teacher schools. A study of this summary may be of assistance to a supervisor in making a working program for a week, a month, or a year.

SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES BY MONTHS

August 28-31

Held conference with superintendent

Made plans for opening of schools—meetings, term outlines of work (rural and town)

September

Worked at office, finishing first term outlines for teachers

Attended and addressed principals' meeting

Conducted teachers' meetings previous to the opening of schools—3 days

Visited 22 schools—68 teachers

Taught 1 hour—4 days

Conducted discussion with 14 new teachers

Held a conference at each of 6 schools with high-school principal in charge of elementary grades—6 half-hours

Held individual conferences with parents

Held conferences with superintendent

Attended State Supervisors' Conference—3 days

Held conference at office—20 teachers—4 Saturdays

Talked at patrons' meeting—1 evening

October

Visited 31 schools—35 teachers

Taught 1 hour—3 days

⁷ Reported by Katharine L. Healy, supervisor of schools in Caroline County, Maryland.

Held conference with 2 principals—1 hour
 Held conferences at office—2 teachers, 2 Saturdays
 Trained assistants for testing program—one-half day
 Tested schools—October Survey—7 days
 Conducted scoring meetings—3 half-days
 Tabulated and summarized results of Stanford Tests—5 days
 Helped one principal to give Terman test in his school
 Had conference with Dr. Jones regarding health work in 1 school
 Held conference with superintendent—2 hours
 Explained standard tests and reported October results to Board of Education—2 hours

November

Visited 22 schools—50 teachers
 Taught 1 hour—11 days
 Held conference with principal— $\frac{1}{2}$ hour
 Held conferences with superintendent
 Conducted teachers' meetings (primary, grammar grade, rural)—3 half-days
 Held conferences at office—11 teachers
 Conducted demonstration for rural teachers (followed by discussion)—1 day
 Spoke at school assembly American Education Week—1 morning
 Worked at office—4 days
 Showed colored supervisor how to give Monroe Test—2 hours
 Worked on second term outline—3 days
 Prepared seatwork material for rural teachers—2 days

December

Visited 18 schools—32 teachers
 Taught 1 hour—2 days
 Held conference with principal of school—2 half-hours
 Held conferences with superintendent—2 hours
 Conducted separate meetings for rural, primary, and grammar grade teachers—3 days
 Held conferences at office—10 teachers
 Worked at office—4 days
 Visited 5 schools with State Supervisor of Elementary Schools—8 teachers.
 Held conference with State Supervisor of Elementary Schools—3 hours
 Instructed colored supervisor about age-grade reports—1 hour

January

Visited 17 schools—32 teachers
 Taught 1 hour—3 days
 Held conference with superintendent—3 hours
 Conducted separate meetings for rural and grammar grade teachers—
 3 days
 Held conferences at office—14 teachers
 Worked at office—3 days
 Made (third) term outlines of work for teachers—2 days
 Met in conference with Board of Education—1 hour
 Spoke at patrons' meetings—2 meetings
 Prepared elementary half-year examinations—2 days

February

Visited 15 schools—31 teachers
 Taught 1 hour—2 days
 Held conferences with principals of schools—5 half-hours
 Held conferences with superintendent—3 hours
 Held conferences at office—16 teachers
 Worked in office—3 days
 Spoke at patrons' meetings—2 meetings
 Visited eighth-grade English classes with superintendent—6 classes
 Attended sessions of National Education Association, Chicago, Illinois
 —5 days

March

Visited 21 schools—49 teachers
 Taught 1 hour—5 days
 Held conferences with principals—1 hour
 Held conferences with superintendent—3 hours
 Conducted separate meetings for rural, primary, and grammar groups—
 3 days
 Held conferences at office—6 teachers
 Conducted demonstration for each group of teachers—3 days
 Worked at office—5 days
 Prepared (fourth) term outlines of work—3 days
 Gave to Board of Education a report from the National Education
 Association—2 hours
 Spoke at patrons' meetings—2 meetings

April

Visited 24 schools—42 teachers
 Taught 1 hour—7 days

Conducted separate grammar grade, primary, and rural meetings—
3 days
Held conferences at office—5 teachers
Worked at office—5 days
Attended State Supervisors' Conference (Baltimore, Maryland)—2
days
Visited schools with Miss Crewe, Supervisor in Baltimore County—
1 day

May

Visited 16 schools—45 teachers
Conducted grammar, primary, rural meetings—3 days
Worked in office—4 days
Held conference to instruct helpers on testing program—2 hours
Tested schools—Statewide program—7 days
Held scoring meetings—4 half-days
Conducted teachers' examinations—3 Saturdays
Held conference with superintendent—2 hours
Reported to Board of Education on results of May standard tests—
2 hours
Helped colored supervisor—medians and charts, Monroe tests—2 hours
Met with committee to approve recommendations for new report card
(pupils')—2 hours

June

Visited 16 schools—35 teachers
Prepared pupils' examination questions, all grades—3 days
Held individual conference regarding pupil promotion—22 teachers
Prepared new report card form from recommendations of committee
Helped in preparation of new "Teachers' Guide" (booklet)
Worked in office after school closed—12 days

Total

Visits to schools	202
Visits to teachers	419
Office conferences with teachers	111
Teachers' meetings conducted	30
Demonstration meeting conducted	3
Patrons' meetings addressed	6
Days in office, exclusive of Saturdays	29
Days in field work, exclusive of Saturdays	178
Saturdays at office	38

In the preceding chapter the question of the planning of county supervisory programs was discussed in great detail. The purpose at this point is simply to emphasize the importance of evolving a well organized plan so that supervisors will not find themselves lost in a mass of routine details or haphazard activities.

Organizing the supervisor's office equipment. The supervisor must have his files, bookcase, and desk convenient for work. A simple, well organized system of filing is an economical necessity. When the supervisor is called upon to make a talk, whether with or without much time for preparation, it is exceedingly helpful to be able to refer quickly in the files to a folder that contains material bearing on the topic to be discussed. Material may be filed in folders by school subjects—arithmetic, English, geography, history, hygiene, music, penmanship, reading, spelling—also in folders by topics, such as attendance, classification of pupils, consolidation, course of study, failures and non-promotions, individualized instruction, lesson-planning, parent-teacher associations, remedial work, rural-school schedules, supervised study, tests.

The key topic "English" might require separate folders for appreciation of poetry, articles from magazines, Better Speech Week, book reports, grammar, judging textbooks, lesson plans, oral composition, picture study, tests and examinations.

The key topic "Education" might require separate folders for creative education, education for leisure, kindergarten-primary education, normal school education, physical education, progressive education, visual education, vocational education.

The supervisor will need also to provide for the arrangement, filing, and use of samples of work collected from classrooms to make possible an interchange of ideas among teachers. These samples of work are usually of more value to teachers than written suggestions in bulletins.

Some shelves for professional books and a desk suitably equipped for work with convenient drawers and receptacles for

paper, envelopes, such printed forms as are needed, blotters, scratch pad, and ink will conserve time and energy.

The supervisor must keep a record of his visits to classrooms. Examination of the material in Table VI shows great variation in the number of visits made by supervisors to teachers for supervision during one year. The range is from 222 visits made by a supervisor in one county to 819 visits made by a supervisor in another county. Some supervisors remain for the period of a single lesson only, others for a whole day. The number and length of visits should be determined by the needs of the teachers visited and the number of teachers under the direction of the supervisor. The supervisor must, however, make definite provision for systematic visiting. A record of the number of visits, length of visits, and suggestions made needs to be kept on prepared blanks. This enables a supervisor to distribute his time more equitably among his teachers and to "follow-up" his work on successive visits.

Following up the work of the outgoing supervisor. It is economical to build on the work of the outgoing supervisor, although it is much easier to criticize existing conditions than to assume responsibility for improving them. Many supervisors, partial to certain textbooks, begin their work in a new supervisory field by deploring the fact that the supervisor who was previously in the county selected a "poor" geography or arithmetic text, or put in a set of basal readers for primary grades not as "good" as one that might have been selected. He wants to change textbooks right away. Instead of building on the work that a group of teachers under the direction of an outgoing supervisor had accomplished on a course of study, let us say, in history, the incoming supervisor immediately discards that and starts all over again, it may be in the same subject-matter field or it may be in a different one. This wasteful practice has a bad psychological effect on the teachers who have given their best efforts to help the previous supervisor. In this connection it may be profitable to read the comment of a successful and experienced county super-

visor who followed in the wake of another supervisor equally successful and even more experienced:⁸

On assuming work in my new field I recognized two unknown phases that might or might not prove very disturbing: the technique of the preceding supervisor and the professional adjustment of the teachers. One is frequently assured that pioneering in any field requires real bravery. But to this supervisor, at least, it seemed a far more hazardous thing to venture across the thresholds of established precedents and fixed opinions, particularly when these precedents and opinions are the result of fine professional leadership. I tried to build on what had already been accomplished and to go slowly in the pursuit of my own pet ideas and projects except in so far as those ideas and projects fitted into the plan of work already in evidence throughout the county. As the year progressed and I came to know the needs of the teachers, I pushed ahead more vigorously.

Of course, following in the wake of a strong supervisor is an entirely different matter from following in the wake of a poor supervisor. In the latter case, a more vigorous policy from the very first will probably bring better results.

Summary. In summarizing it may be repeated that in view of the scope and variety of duties that enter into the work of rural supervision, much attention needs to be given to the budgeting of the supervisor's time. This can be adequately done only by surveying and analyzing the activities that a rural supervisor must perform. A nice appreciation of relative values is required in order to make an equitable distribution of supervisory time and effort; and very careful planning and organization are necessary if supervision is to be definite and economical rather than haphazard and wasteful. Only by arriving at a fairly satisfactory solution to these problems may a supervisor expect to lead a happy normal life, truly representative of the proper balance between in-school and out-of-school activities.

⁸ From the unpublished report of M. Clarice Bersch, Supervisor of Elementary Schools in Anne Arundel County, Maryland, to the State Superintendent, July, 1925.

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CHAPTER V

WORKABLE DAILY SCHEDULES FOR SMALL SCHOOLS

It is estimated that 30 per cent of all school children in the United States are in one-teacher and two-teacher rural schools. For these 7,000,000 children the annual school term averages twenty-seven days less than that of children in urban schools, which means that country children have an actual elementary-school period of only seven years, whereas urban children have eight years. Notwithstanding the strong move for consolidation in many sections, the problem of education in one-teacher and two-teacher schools will probably continue for a long time to affect several million children annually and thus will remain an important problem for the supervisor of rural schools.

To these small schools should be brought whatever will make for better organization and for improvement in teaching. Experience has demonstrated that, by means of a carefully worked out daily schedule, teaching and managing of pupils of all ages and all grades can be much more efficiently organized.

Difficulties in the formulation of workable daily schedules. The formulating of a schedule for rural schools that will give a better balance of weight and time in the various subjects of instruction, while making it possible to do effective teaching in all seven or eight grades of the elementary school, is quite a problem. Superintendents, supervisors, and teachers have always recognized the importance of the time element involved, but until comparatively recent years they have been conservative in experimenting with programs that would give longer periods and fewer lessons or recitations during the day or week.

To be effective a recitation must be reasonable in length.

Reasonableness in a recitation time schedule means that there is a sufficient period allowed for such continuity in thinking, discussing, and doing as is needed for the efficient execution of the assignment. It means that there is time for reflective thinking; for much pupil participation. In brief, a recitation reasonable in length is one that allows the teacher a full use of those techniques that are recognized as best suited to the particular type of lesson under way.

One of the great advantages of city graded schools and consolidated schools in rural districts is the length of recitation time allowed for each subject in the curriculum. In the elementary school, no less than in higher schools, it takes time to conduct a thought-provoking discussion and bring together all that should go into the lesson, or to secure the amount of practice that is needed in subjects requiring extended drill. This is particularly true of the higher elementary-school grades, which need twenty or thirty minutes for each recitation. In contrast, the primary grades need more frequent recitation contacts with the teacher than do the higher grades, and the periods may be considerably shorter.

The number of daily recitations a conditioning factor. In organizing the daily work for any classroom the length of recitations is conditioned by the number of recitations. In the one-teacher rural school, lessons cannot be of satisfactory length if there are more than twenty or twenty-two recitations per day. One county superintendent expresses his view of this problem concerning the length of the recitation schedule in the following statement:

When a university professor has not more than three teaching periods of one hour each per day, a high-school instructor about five or six periods per day, a teacher in an elementary graded school about eight lessons per day, why should we believe that a teacher in the one-room school can teach at all effectively thirty or more lessons per day? Common sense shows us clearly that no conscientious person can teach with much satisfaction to himself or to anybody else even twenty lessons per day.

In the attempt to improve the continuity of the daily program in the one-room rural school, we find carefully directed experiments being carried on. For instance, instead of handling seven or eight separate grades a day, the teacher may group her pupils into four sections. Such grouping permits fewer recitations a day, longer teaching periods, and more careful planning of the work. Furthermore, the daily schedule should provide for an equitable distribution of time among the several grades and the various subjects and activities. Reinoehl's¹ study of daily programs recommended in state courses of study disclosed the fact that first-grade children were allotted about 28 minutes a day or 140 minutes a week of the teacher's time as compared with an allotment of 55 minutes a day or 275 minutes a week to seventh-grade children. Children in the higher elementary grades with a better command of the "Three R's" are able to study and to work much more independently than are pupils in the primary grades. Therefore, the daily schedule should give to the latter a fair apportionment of time.

A weekly teaching program for a seven-grade school. The following schedule, organized by groups rather than by grades, and with time fairly distributed among the groups of children and the school subjects and activities, is being successfully used in many one-teacher schools where there are seven grades. The primary grades include both Group I and Group II. They may be taught separately or grouped for certain activities as the teacher deems advisable. Group III includes Grades 4 and 5; Group IV includes Grades 6 and 7.

A study of the weekly program for a seven-grade school on page 124 discloses the following salient features:

1. Combination of grades and alternation of subject matter. Two grades are put together for work with a yearly alternation of subject matter. For example, in Groups III and IV a pupil in

¹ Charles Myron Reinoehl, "Analytical Survey of State Courses of Study for Rural Elementary Schools," *U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin*, No. 4, 1922, Ch. iii.

TABLE VIII.—A WEEKLY TEACHING PROGRAM FOR A SEVEN-GRADE SCHOOL *

	TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
20	8:40- 9:00	Preparation of work and opening of school †				
5	9:00- 9:05	Opening exercises				
		Primary Reading ‡				
40	9:05- 9:45	Groups III and IV—Study period for History				
		Arithmetic—Grades 4, 5, 6, 7				
35	9:45-10:20	Primary Grades—Seatwork				
10	10:20-10:30	Writing				
10	10:30-10:40	Recess and free play				
		Primary Social Studies				
20	10:40-11:00	Groups III and IV—Study period for Geography or Hygiene				
40	11:00-11:40	History—Group III ‡ History—Group IV Primary Grades—Social Studies—Activity Period				History, Group III ‡ Hygiene or Civics, Group IV; Primary Grades, Activity Period
20	11:40-12:00	Music—Groups III and IV	Music—Primary Grades	Music—Groups III and IV	Music—Primary Grades	Music—Groups III and IV
60	12:00- 1:00	Noon and organized play				
		Primary Reading—Grades 1, 2, and 3				
30	1:00- 1:30	Groups III and IV—Social Studies—Activity period				
45	1:30- 2:15	Geography—Group III Geography—Group IV Primary Grades—Seatwork Reading and Arithmetic				Hygiene—Group III Agriculture—Group IV Primary Seatwork
15	2:15- 2:30	Recess				
		Arithmetic—Grades 1, 2, and 3				
30	2:30- 3:00	Groups III and IV, Study period—Reading and English				
		Spelling				
30	3:00- 3:30	(All grades) §				
		Reading—Group III				
30	3:30- 4:00	Reading—Group IV				

* Changes in this program may be made only with the supervisor's approval.

† Teachers *must* be on duty by 8:40 A. M., and *must* remain on duty until 4:00 P. M.

‡ Primary grades include grades 1, 2, and 3, which may be taught separately or grouped for certain subjects as the teacher deems advisable. Group III includes grades 4 and 5; Group IV, grades 6 and 7.

§ In spelling, grades 1 and 2 recite separately; 3 and 4, together; 5 and 6, together; 7, separately.

|| Grades 1, 2, and 3 may be dismissed at 3:30 o'clock.

¶ School Club meets last Friday of each month from 3:30 to 4:00 P. M.

any one year will not complete all the work of one grade; *it takes two years to do this*. In starting the alternation scheme, if reading is the subject in question, for Group III (comprising Grades 4 and 5 combined) fifth-grade reading would be taught the first year and fourth-grade reading would be omitted. In the following year the fourth-grade pupils would become fifth-grade pupils, remaining, however, in Group III. This year they would combine with the new fourth grade, and fourth-grade reading would be given. On alternate years fifth-grade reading would be given to Group III.

In connection with history for Group IV (comprising Grades 6 and 7 combined) the program recommends that the subject matter of seventh-grade history (United States) be taught the first year and sixth-grade history be omitted. In the following year the sixth-grade pupils become seventh-grade pupils, remaining, however, in Group IV. This year they combine with the new sixth grade, and sixth-grade history (Old World Background) is given. On alternate years seventh-grade history is given to Group IV.

The program contemplates combination of classes and yearly alternation of subject matter for Groups III and IV in all subjects except arithmetic, hygiene, and civics. Arithmetic subject matter is given to each grade separately. In Group IV, an example of half-year alternation occurs where hygiene is scheduled to be taught the first half of every year, civics the second half, or vice versa.

2. The three primary grades are separated for reading and numbers, but may be combined for language and social studies in such ways as the teacher deems advisable.

3. A logical and psychological distribution of the recitation, study, and occupation periods of the school week has been made.

4. Reading is given 440 minutes per week in all groups, with 350 minutes of the total time assigned to the primary grades, indicating the emphasis deemed necessary for adequate preparation for the work of Groups III and IV. Whereas the daily

schedule of lessons shows fewer recitation periods per week, the time given to instruction in any one subject will average more than double that which it would be possible to give were the pupils grouped in seven separate grades.

Difficulties in putting the schedule into effect. A schedule providing for combination of classes and alternation of subject matter has some disadvantages, but these are far outweighed by the advantages. This type of schedule has passed the experimental stage. Any teacher of a one-room school of seven or eight grades, not using a schedule somewhat similar to the schedules illustrated in this chapter, may be sure that the work is less efficiently organized than it should be.

Sometimes there is difficulty in leading teachers to accept a group schedule. To anticipate this difficulty the supervisor should, before introducing the new program, discuss all its phases with his teachers and should see that they have a part in the making and adoption of such a schedule. A superintendent or supervisor who arbitrarily says to his teachers, "We are going to use this schedule, so hang it up in your school," violates a fundamental principle of supervision. He is forgetting the basic psychology involved in the slogan "Work with, not for, your teachers." He is forgetting too that the secret of making effective changes lies to a great extent in the effective changing of individual outlook and purposes. Oftentimes in an especially conservative county or township, a supervisor finds it expedient to change the program schedule more gradually. He may place the new time schedule before the teachers who show ability to think well in terms of organization of pupils and subject matter; he may secure their coöperation in experimenting with the new program, and after these more able teachers have become convinced of the advantages in the organization by pupil groups and alternation of subjects, he may set up ways by which these teachers lend their coöperation and help in extending the new program among the less able or less experienced teachers. Through meetings, teacher committees, inter-school visitation, careful explanation to parents

and pupils, the newer program may be gradually and effectively introduced. Especially should it be remembered that the parent or layman, as much as the teacher, often needs to have clarified the meanings behind any change in school programs. The burden of any radical change in school procedures should never be left to the teacher. It should become a community as well as a school project.

Some of the difficulties that must be taken into account are:

1. Textbooks and courses of study are seldom adapted to the combination and alternation scheme. In subjects in which the textbook is for one year's use only, a double supply of textbooks is required. This would be the case with hygiene and civics as scheduled on page 124.

2. Much ability on the part of the teacher is required to make the subject matter sufficiently challenging to interest the fifth-grade pupils of Group III and the seventh-grade pupils of Group IV to the point of "making them stretch" mentally. Likewise, in order to prevent discouragement, the teacher needs to show ability in keeping the subject matter on a level appropriate to the understanding of fourth-grade pupils in Group III and the sixth-grade pupils of Group IV.

3. Parents and pupils sometimes object to the grouping scheme. They assume that pupils are being held back when the fifth grade is kept with the fourth, and seventh grade is kept with the sixth.

4. Occasionally a teacher will unwisely permit pupils to stay but one year in the group instead of two years, in order to seem to have made a better teaching record than the ability or accomplishment of the pupils would really warrant.

5. The scheme of group combination and subject-matter alternation is a complicated one, difficult for teachers to understand intelligently, and when they do understand it, not easy to carry out. Consequently, it is necessary that a supervisor clearly show his teachers the need of adopting an experimental or studious attitude toward the new plan.

Ways of overcoming these difficulties. In most school systems where rural supervisors are employed, some form of group schedule is being used in one-teacher and two-teacher schools. Those supervisors who have been most successful in securing an enthusiastic reception of the schedule by teachers, pupils, and patrons have followed certain procedures that may thus be summarized as suggestions for the rural supervisor:

1. Superintendent and supervisor should study carefully the advantages and the disadvantages of the combination of classes and the alternation of subject matter.

2. If it is agreed that a group schedule shall be used in every one-teacher and two-teacher school in the supervisory unit, then a decision must be made concerning the grouping of pupils and the subject matter to be alternated. A very good plan for grouping pupils for the English subjects in small rural schools is suggested in the rural-school syllabus for New York State:²

Reading

- Group E—Grade 1
- Group D—Grade 2
- Group C—Grades 3 and 4
- Group B—All pupils in Grades 5, 6, 7 and 8 who need special help in reading
- Group A—Advanced pupils in Grades 5, 6, 7 and 8

Language

- Groups E and D—Grades 1 and 2
- Group C—Grades 3 and 4
- Group B—Grades 5 and 6
- Group A—Grades 7 and 8

Spelling

Three formal classes taught in same period on daily program.

Penmanship

Two organized classes taught at the same period on daily program.

3. The supervisor should study the textbooks very carefully and adapt them to the schedule. One of the most difficult problems connected with inaugurating the schedule is the problem of clarifying the teachers' ideas concerning the textbooks to be

² *Handbook for Rural Elementary Schools* prepared by the Rural School Syllabus Committee under the direction of the Rural Education Bureau of the Education Department of the State of New York, 1930, p. 7.

used. It is wise to prepare a mimeographed or printed sheet of instructions to accompany the proposed schedule. This instruction sheet should show exactly what textbooks and parts of textbooks are to be used in each group for the two-year period, and also what supplementary books are available. Thus teachers will be enabled to order and distribute books correctly, to have the correct list of books when the new program is launched, and to gain a better perspective of the whole two-year scheme. In other words, an outline course of study is necessary showing what subject matter will be used in odd years and what subject matter will be used in even years.

4. The supervisor should have copies of the tentative group schedule printed or mimeographed for every teacher who is to use it, and insist that it be posted in a conspicuous place to serve as a guide for pupils as well as teacher.

5. At a teachers' meeting preliminary to the opening of school, the supervisor should explain the schedule to the rural teachers who are to use it, invite their comments and suggestions, and teach them how to use it. At this meeting, the teachers should be given a printed or mimeographed list that indicates the books available and the ones to be used in each group, as well as a topical outline course of study with specific textbook references in printed or mimeographed form. The supervisor, by giving due consideration to the teachers' comments and suggestions, will win their coöperation in the attempt to make the new schedule successful.

6. Soon after instituting the new schedule, the supervisor should visit every rural school to aid in making adjustments. Sometimes there are no pupils for a certain grade and additional time may thus be secured and apportioned where the need seems greatest. Various complications in individual schools will call for supervisory aid in making the needed adjustments of program and time schedule.

7. When the supervisor visits rural schools he may teach a "group." At small conferences of rural teachers held in one-

teacher schools he may have demonstration lessons with two grades combined, followed by discussions of the work observed. For example, following the grouping provided for by the schedule on page 124, there might be a language lesson with Group II—second and third grades; a reading lesson with Group III—fourth and fifth grades; a geography lesson with Group IV—sixth and seventh grades. The teacher may teach the language and reading, and in turn the supervisor may give the lesson in geography.

8. The supervisor should always lead teachers to feel that they may change the schedule to meet their needs, but that they should *first advise with him*. Avoid too great rigidity. At times a pupil may vary in his ability in the several subjects and the teacher will need to give him a place in two different groups. For example, if a child shows ability in spelling higher than the regular group to which he has been assigned, he should be allowed to work with a higher group. A pupil may thus be placed with Group III for reading and with Group IV for spelling.

9. Superintendent, supervisor, and teacher should call the patrons together and explain carefully the reasons for grouping grades and the plan of the schedule.

10. The supervisor should make definite provision on the schedule for teaching subjects for which no texts are provided.

11. The supervisor will bear in mind the necessity of checking constantly on the use of the schedule. Teachers change from year to year. Never assume that the group schedule is permanently accepted by teachers or parents. Each year at a meeting preliminary to the opening of school there will be the need to study the continuous problems involved in the use of a schedule of class grouping and subject-matter alternation.

12. Teachers should feel that the schedule is a coöperative piece of work and should feel free to suggest points for revision.

The California and Iowa teaching programs for an eight-grade school. The maker of a program for the small rural school is confronted with a real problem when it comes to apportioning among the various grades an equitable time allotment that will

secure effective teaching and be in accordance with the findings of scientific research. One of the outstanding attempts at solving this difficult problem of program-making is that shown in *The California Curriculum Study* of 1923-26. The influence of this study and recommendations involved therein may be found in some of the more recent courses of study used by other states. Another publication that shows careful thought in the preparation of weekly schedules is the Iowa state course of study. This new type of constructive thinking in the matter of time allotment is shown in the following tables from *The California Curriculum Study* and in a reprint of the Iowa weekly schedule. Supervisors who are interested in formulating well balanced programs will

TABLE IX.—SUGGESTIVE SCHEDULE OF WEEKLY TIME ALLOTMENTS (IN MINUTES PER WEEK) DISTRIBUTED AMONG THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL SUBJECTS *

Subjects	Grades								Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Arithmetic	—	140	215	215	220	220	220	220	1,450
Language Study ..	120	125	165	170	185	190	205	215	1,380
Reading	435	395	325	245	190	160	145	140	2,035
Spelling	30	80	85	85	90	80	75	75	600
Writing	70	70	75	80	75	70	60	60	560
History {	30	30	45	75	90	110	150	170	640
Civics† }					20	20	30	35	165
Geography			60	130	150	150	120	75	685
Science‡	25	25	25	25	20	20	20	25	185
Art	90	90	90	90	80	75	75	75	665
Healthful Living..	120	120	120	120	125	125	135	135	1,000
Practical Arts‡...	25	25	25	30	45	60	85	100	395
Music	75	75	75	75	75	75	70	70	590
Opening Exercises.	20	20	20	20	20	20	15	15	150
Miscellaneous					50	75	80	90	295
Recess	100	100	110	110	110	110	100	100	840
Total	1,140	1,295	1,435	1,470	1,545	1,560	1,585	1,600	11,635

* W. C. Bagley and G. C. Kyte, *The California Curriculum Study* (University of California, 1926).

† Including "Morals and Manners."

‡ Optional subjects; not included in the list of the twelve prescribed by law in California.

TABLE X.—PERCENTAGE OF DISTRIBUTION BY GRADES OF THE SUGGESTED WEEKLY TIME ALLOTMENTS FOR THE VARIOUS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUBJECTS *

Subjects	Grades								Total	Proposed Rural Program for Iowa
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII		
Arithmetic	10.5	10.8	14.9	14.7	14.2	14.1	13.9	13.8	12.5	13.6
Language study	38.2	9.7	11.4	11.6	12.0	12.2	12.9	13.4	11.9	12.2
Reading	2.6	30.5	22.5	16.7	12.3	10.3	9.1	8.8	17.5	16.1
Spelling	6.1	6.2	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.1	4.7	4.7	5.2	4.4
Writing		5.4	5.2	5.5	4.9	4.5	3.8	3.8	4.8	2.2
Total: three R's	57.4	62.6	59.8	54.3	49.2	46.2	44.4	44.5	51.9	48.5
History	1.3	1.2	2.1	4.1	5.8	7.1	9.5	10.6	5.5	6.6
†Civics	1.3	1.2	1.	1.	1.3	1.3	1.9	2.2	1.4	3.
Geography			4.2	8.9	9.7	9.6	7.6	4.7	5.9	7.8
Science	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.6	
‡General lessons										3.3
Total: content subjects..	4.8	4.3	9.	15.7	18.1	19.3	20.3	19.1	14.4	20.7
Art	7.9	6.9	6.2	6.1	5.2	4.8	4.7	4.7	5.7	1.7
Healthful living	10.5	9.3	8.3	8.2	8.1	8.	8.5	8.4	8.6	6.1
Practical arts	2.2	1.9	1.7	2.	2.9	3.8	5.4	6.3	3.4	3.
Music	6.1	5.8	5.2	5.1	4.9	4.8	4.4	4.4	5.	
Opening exercise	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	.9	.9	1.3	4.2
Miscellaneous					3.2	4.8	5.1	5.6	2.5	...
Recess	8.8	7.7	7.6	7.5	7.1	7.1	6.3	6.3	7.2	5.6
†Supervision										10.0
Total: special subjects..	37.3	33.1	30.4	30.3	32.7	34.6	35.3	36.6	33.7	30.6
Total for all subjects...	99.5	100.	99.2	100.3	100.	100.1	100.	100.2	100.	99.8

* Bagley and Kyte, *op. cit.*

† Including "Morals and Manners."

‡ Since a portion of the time that is devoted to "supervision" will be given to writing and handwriting in the primary grades, the percentage of time for writing and art will be considerably higher than indicated above. Also, if the recommendations of the committees on "Work Type Reading" and on "General Lessons" are followed then a portion of the time assigned to history and geography should properly belong to reading and one-fourth of the time for general lessons to healthful living.

find that the two tables and the Iowa weekly schedule will repay careful study.

In Table X the last column and the items marked † have been added to the original data. They relate to the program that follows for the rural schools of Iowa.

In the Iowa course of study³ considerable space is given in explanation of various features of the weekly program. A few excerpts follow:

With the week as a unit of time the teacher is permitted a greater elasticity than is possible in a "daily" program. If she has but forty minutes per week for a given class, such as seventh-grade geography, she may distribute those forty minutes in several ways. For instance, she may on the one hand, have five periods of eight minutes each or four periods of ten minutes each per week; or, on the other hand, she may have but one period of forty minutes. Again she may take neither extreme and have two periods of fifteen minutes each on Monday and Wednesday for instance, and two periods of five minutes each on Tuesday and Thursday. . . .

Under the last plan she would use the fifteen-minute periods for "class instruction," not for a "recitation" or "reciting" period, and the five-minute periods for "individual instruction and seatwork supervision."

The "class instruction periods" provided in this program should be used for the two-fold purpose of (1) creating within the pupil a desire to learn the thing in hand and (2) seeing to it that the material is brought within the range of his understanding.

The program provides (1) that at least 10 per cent of the teacher's time be devoted to "individual instruction and seatwork supervision," and (2) that a class in any given subject shall have a "class instruction period" one day and "seatwork activity" in that subject under the supervision of the teacher on the following day.

In adjusting the program to fewer grades the teacher should endeavor to follow the general plan set forth in the program for a school of eight grades. First, she should endeavor, in so far as possible, to devote herself exclusively to one subject for a given portion of the day. From 9:50

³ *Course of Study for Elementary Schools* (Iowa Department of Public Instruction), pp. 13, 21.

TABLE XI.—A WEEKLY TEACHING PROGRAM FOR AN EIGHT-GRADE SCHOOL—MORNING*

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9:00-9:15	Opening exercises and music				
9:15-9:20	Individual instruction and seatwork supervision				
9:20-9:50	Class instruction in reading for Grades 1, 2, and 3-10 minutes each Seatwork in history for Grades 4 to 8, inclusive				
9:50-9:55	Individual instruction and seatwork supervision				
9:55-10:25	Class instruction in history;				
	Grades 4 and 5-15 min.	Grade 6-15 min.	Grades 4 and 5-15 min.	Grade 6-15 min.	Class instruction in reading Grades 6, 7, 8-20 min. Grades 4, 5-15 min.
	Grade 7-15 min.	Grade 8-15 min.	Grade 7-15 min.	Grade 8-15 min.	
	Seatwork in history for grades not receiving class instruction				
10:25-10:35	Physical education for all				
10:35-10:40	Recess				

* *Course of Study for Elementary Schools*, Iowa Department of Public Instruction, pp. 17-18.

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
10:40-10:45	Individual instruction and seatwork supervision				
	Class instruction as follows:				
10:45-11:40	Phonics—Grades 1 and 2—5 min. each 6th arith.—15 min. 7th arith.—15 min. 8th arith.—15 min.	Numbers—Grades 1 and 2—10 min. 3rd arith.—15 min. 4th arith.—15 min. 5th arith.—15 min. Seatwork in arithmetic for grades not receiving class instruction	Phonics—Grades 1 and 2—5 min. each 6th arith.—15 min. 7th arith.—15 min. 8th arith.—15 min.	Numbers—Grades 1 and 2—10 min. 3rd arith.—15 min. 4th arith.—15 min. 5th arith.—15 min.	Phonics—Grades 1 and 2—5 min. each Arith.—Grades 3-8 as needed
	Class instruction in spelling as follows:				
11:40-12:00	Group I—Grades 3 and 4 Group II—Grades 5 and 6—10 min. each	Group III—Grades 7-8 Supervised study—10 min. each	Group I—Grades 3 and 4 Group II—Grades 5 and 6—10 min. each	Group III—Grades 7 and 8 Supervised study—10 min. each	Groups I, II, III as needed
12:00-12:20	Supervised lunch				
12:20-1:00	Supervised play				

TABLE XI.—Continued.—A WEEKLY TEACHING PROGRAM FOR AN EIGHT-GRADE SCHOOL—AFTERNOON

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
1:00-1:05	Individual instruction and seatwork supervision				
	Class Instruction as follows:				
1:05-1:25	Reading—Grades 1 and 2—10 min. each	Language—Grades 1 and 2—20 min.	Reading—Grades 1 and 2—10 min. each	Language—Grades 1 and 2—20 min.	Reading—Grades 1 and 2—10 min. each
	Reading—Grades 3-8	Seatwork as follows for grades not receiving class instruction Language—Grades 3-8 inclusive			
1:25-1:30	Individual instruction and seatwork supervision				
	Class instruction as follows:				
1:30-2:15	Reading—Grades 4 and 5—15 min.	3rd language—15 min.	4th language—15 min.	3rd language—15 min.	4th language—15 min.
	Drawing—all grades—30 min.	6th language—15 min.	5th language—15 min.	6th language—15 min.	5th language—15 min.
		8th language—15 min.	7th language—15 min.	8th language—15 min.	7th language—15 min.
	Reading—Grades 3-8	Seatwork as follows for grades not receiving class instruction Language—Grades 3-8			

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
2:15-2:30	Recess—supervised play				
2:30-2:35	Individual instruction and seatwork supervision				
2:35-3:05	Class instruction as follows:				
	Hygiene—Grades 4 and 5—15 min.	General lessons—Grades 1, 2 and 3 combined—15 min. Hygiene—Grades 6, 7, and 8—15 min.	Hygiene—Grades 4 and 5—15 min.	Hygiene—Grades 6, 7, and 8—15 min.	Citizenship—all grades
3:05-3:10	Individual instruction and seatwork supervision				
	Class instruction as follows:				
3:10-4:00	6th geog.—15 min. 7th geog.—15 min. 8th geog.—20 min. or civics	4th geog.—15 min. 5th geog.—15 min. Writing—all grades—20 min.	6th geog.—15 min. 7th geog.—15 min. 8th geog.—20 min. or civics	4th geog.—15 min. 5th geog.—15 min. Writing—All grades—20 min.	Vocational subjects for all
	Seatwork in geography for grades not receiving class instruction				

to 10:25 for instance, all pupils who are studying history should be working on that subject. One or more of the groups should on Monday receive "class instruction" in history, while the other group or groups will be working on history problems at their seats. On Tuesday the work of the groups should be reversed. Second, the teacher should have a balanced program between "class instruction" and "seatwork activity" for each group each day. The fifth grade, for instance, should not have class instruction in all its subjects one day and seatwork alone the next day. Each class group should have at least one class instruction period each half-day and preferably each quarter-day.

The weekly program suggested for the eight-grade school in Iowa has been carefully worked out in accordance with the principles of good program-making. It utilizes the findings of research in the matter of time allotment and grade placement. It reflects a philosophy of education. It provides for well organized instruction based upon child activities.

Aiding pupils to work independently. One striking feature of the Iowa program is the provision that at least 10 per cent of the teacher's time be devoted to individual instruction and seatwork supervision. In one-teacher schools of seven or eight grades where pupils must work independently for about 80 per cent of their time, some teachers are finding that a simple adaptation of the Dalton plan is effective. Units of work in reading, for example, are provided so that children may progress according to their own individual abilities. This does not mean that group reading with literary materials is being supplanted. It means rather that through carefully graded direction sheets and assignments, a pupil may progress in certain of the school subjects with a rate and quality of work suited to his capacity. There are distinct advantages in both individual work and group work, but the former is peculiarly adapted to small rural schools where it is particularly important that children learn independent habits of study, and where the number of pupils per teacher is usually less than in the graded schools.

In a school where fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grade pupils are grouped for reading, each pupil may be given a copy of an

TABLE XII.—STORIES READ BY GROUP IV WHILE STUDYING THE HISTORY OF THE GREEKS

PUPILS	KING ARTHUR						RACE FOR SILVER SKATES						PERSEUS						ACHILLES THE GREEK					
	Practice Tests						Practice Tests						Practice Tests						Practice Tests					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
John A.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓																		
Mary B.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓																		
Jane F.	✓	✓	✓																					
Sarah G.	✓	✓	✓	✓																				
Henry J.	✓	✓	✓	✓																				
Kitty J.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓																		
George L.	✓	✓	✓																					
Martha M.	✓																							

On the original chart some of the checks are blue and some are red. Blue checks indicate that the test was correctly passed at the first trial. Red checks indicate that the test was correctly passed at the second trial.

assignment for a certain story worked out by the teacher. Each pupil reads the story and completes the assignment at his own rate of achievement so that it is possible for every child in the group to be working on a different part of the assignment. Besides the practice in silent reading thus afforded, the plan comprehends that when two or three of the children are "ready" to be tested on the assignment for oral reading the teacher checks on this phase of their work. On a simple chart somewhat similar to Table XII, page 139, each child records his own progress.

The following assignment on "The Story of Achilles," a copy of which was given to each pupil in Group IV, was carried out according to the foregoing plan. It will serve to illustrate part of a unit of work comprising the reading of several stories in connection with a study of the history of the Greeks.

STORIES OF GREECE ⁴

If you would like to follow a trail of high adventure and pulsing romance, a trail of history and legend that leads one back hundreds of years, then come with me to the fair land of Greece. I would not have you stop at the capital, where commerce and civilization dwell side by side, but would take you to the city of Sparta, where dwelt the fairest of all the women of Greece and the strongest of all its men—Helen and Achilles. I would re-create for you the vanished glory of the Greeks, they who ruled a mighty empire and whose remaining monuments are literature, art, and architecture.

In the "Story of Achilles" you will discover how these ancient people lived, loved, and fought. As you finish reading each chapter, see if you can do correctly the tests pertaining to that chapter.

The Story of Achilles—(Elson Reader, Book VI)

Test 1—Chapter I

Find the meanings of these words and locate them in the story. Write the sentences in which they occur, using the meaning of each word instead of the word.

⁴ Prepared and used by Alice Quick, teacher at Antietam School, Hagerstown, Maryland.

assembled	injury	immortal god
score	grievous	counsel
avenge	mortal men	lost his reason

Make a list of the gods and goddesses mentioned in this chapter.

Test 2—Chapter I

Write answers to the following questions:

1. Why was it difficult for Helen to choose a husband?
2. What advice upon the matter was given by Ulysses?
3. Why did Ulysses offer advice?
4. What is your opinion of the king of Troy?
5. Prove that Discord deserved her name.
6. What trouble did Discord cause in Greece?
7. What goddesses claimed the Golden Apple?
8. How was the dispute settled?
9. Did Ulysses wish to keep his promise to Menelaus? Why?
10. What was the purpose of the army which Menelaus finally gathered together?
11. Why and how did Ulysses pretend that he had lost his reason?

Test 3—Oral Reading, Chapter I

1. Read the paragraph which tells what Tyndareus said to the suitors of Helen.
2. Prove that Ulysses did not permit his "heart to rule his head."
3. Read the sentence which proves that King Priam was a coward.
4. Read the paragraph which tells how the goddesses tried to influence Paris in his judgment.
5. Outline the events of the story.

The three foregoing tests were prepared for the first chapter of the story. Tests similar to these were prepared for each of the six chapters.

The plan of individual instruction provides for maximum pupil initiative and minimum teacher assistance or direction. It also provides for varied pupil abilities. An examination of the following contracts in history and civics will show that these assignments are serviceable means for promoting independent methods of work among pupils in rural schools, whether small schools or large schools.

HISTORY AND CIVICS ⁵—Grade 4

Assignment for December 8 to January 23, 1930

We shall go on with our story of people who lived long ago.

Job 17. The Assyrians were very cruel and selfish, you remember. Let us try to think of other people. This is quite different from the Assyrians' way of thinking.

Things to Do:

1. Find a story which teaches one of these things.

a.

b.

c.

2. Where shall we find these stories?

a.

b.

c.

3. Friday of each week will be the day for these stories.

Job 18. You remember that the Babylonian king, Nebuchadnezzar, married a Median girl and built the hanging gardens so she would not become homesick for the hills of Media. I wonder whether she might have become homesick for other things. Let us find out.

Things to Do: (first week, December 8-12)

1. Read in *A Child's History of the World* by Hillyer this story, "A Surprise Party."

2. Following conference, I shall give you a test on this job. It will be on Friday, the twelfth.

Job 19. Let us look back to 500 B.C., to the time when two men, one in India and the other in China, taught boys and girls and even grown-ups to be kind to others.

Things to Do: (first week—December 8-12)

1. Read in *A Child's History of the World* by Hillyer the story called "The Other Side of the World."

2. After we talk about these men I shall give you a test.

Job 20. Would you like to know what happened in Rome in 509 B.C.? When you read the story mentioned in this job you will find out.

⁵ Prepared by Lena B. Shaw for pupils in the Benjamin R. Myers School, Elkins Park, Penn.

Things to Do: (second week—December 15-19)

1. Read in *A Child's History of the World* the story, "Rome Kicks Out Her Kings."
2. Copy on a sheet of paper the outline that you see below, *fill in the missing parts* and hand in before Friday, December 19.
 - A. Two classes of people in Rome.
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - B. King driven out of Rome
 - 1.
 - C. The Romans ruled by
 - 1.
 - D. A Roman stands on a wooden bridge
 - 1.
 - E. A farmer leads the Roman army
 - 1.

Conferences: Tuesday, W-4, December 16; Thursday, L-4, December 18

Job 21. On Thanksgiving Day several important football games were played. One that was very important to us was the Cheltenham *vs.* Abington game. Do you know what these two little letters "*vs.*" mean? In this job we shall find out two things: first, what *vs.* means; second, what this match, Greece *vs.* Persia, was about and who won.

Things to Do: (third and fourth weeks—December 22-January 9)

1. Read in *A Child's History of the World* these three stories:
 - a. "Greece *vs.* Persia"
 - b. "Fighting Mad"
 - c. "One against a Thousand"
2. Hand in the answers to these questions before January 9.
 - a. What was the match between Persia and Greece?
 - b. How did a storm save Greece?
 - c. How did Athens and Sparta reply to Darius's messenger?
 - d. Why might we say Pheidippides was like a telegraph, a train, or a telephone?
 - e. There were more Persians than Greeks; can you give a reason for the Greeks defeating the Persians?
 - f. Why do we have a Marathon race today?
 - g. In what way did Xerxes settle the question of getting so many soldiers over to Greece?
 - h. What good idea did Themistocles have while fighting the Persian fleet?

Conference L-4, Thursday; W-4, Tuesday

Job 22. We have seen how Greece became a great country able to defend herself against the Persians. Now let us see how some men helped Greece, while others thought more of themselves than Greece. Greece suffered through these men and finally lost her power.

Things to Do: (January 12-23)

1. Read in *A Child's History of the World* by Hillyer these stories:
 - a. "The Golden Age"
 - b. "When Greek Meets Greek"
 - c. "Wise men and Otherwise"
 - d. "A Boy King"
2. Let us tell the story of this job by pictures. On Grade 4 bulletin, there are two sheets; one is L-4's, the other is W-4's. Sign your name after the topic you like best. Draw a picture that will tell the story of the topic that you chose. You may color your pictures. Under your picture write the topic and two sentences. We shall paste the pictures on a large sheet of paper to hang on the wall.

Supplementary Jobs.

- Job A. You have done very well in bringing pictures for the bulletin board and books to show to the class. I do hope you can find pictures and books that will be suitable for this contract.
- Job B. Would you like to make the winged bull? I would like to have a model of it in the room.
- Job C. Anything that you plan yourself, that deals with this contract, I shall be glad to see and credit.
- Job D. Can you plan a little play in which you show what Confucius taught? Come to me to talk about it if you are interested.
- Job E. Wouldn't you like to show to the class in a pantomime how Cyrus captured Babylon?
- Job F. Doesn't someone want to make a Xerxes' bridge of boats? You can get someone to help you.
- Job G. Three or four of you might lay out on the floor with the sand that part of the world which Job 21 tells about. Come to me if you are interested.
- Job H. We might show Grades 5 and 6 a model of a fasces. I'm sure they have never seen one. Who will make it?

HISTORY AND CIVICS ⁶—Grade 6

Assignment for February 2 to March 13, 1931

We shall continue that period of history called *The New America* which follows the Reconstruction Period and comes to present time.

⁶ Prepared by Lena B. Shaw for pupils in the Benjamin R. Myers School at Elkins Park, Penn.

Job. 24. One plain result of the Civil War was that the seceding states and parts of the border states were ruined. In this job we shall learn how the New South developed from a ruined South to a prosperous one. This period of change took place approximately between 1869 and 1885.

Things to Do: (February 9-13)

1. Read in at least *two books* the story of the *New South*. I found these books helpful:
School History of the United States—Hart
A History of the United States—Gordy
The Making of Our Country—Burnham
 You may use any book so long as you find answers to the following questions.
2. Write answers to these questions and hand in February 11.
 - a. How different is the New South, without slavery, from the Old South, with slavery?
 - b. What has been done for the education of the freedmen and with what results?
 - c. Before the Civil War, what was the chief industry and most important product of the South? Since the Civil War, name the industries and products of the South?

Job. 25. Not only did the South develop into a prosperous section, but everywhere conditions were improved in the homes and the factories. Let us look back and see some of the improvements and changes which took place in this period of 1865-1890, which affect us to-day.

Complete (February 16-February 20)

Improvement or Invention	Use	Time
1. Bessemer steel		
2. Typewriter		
3. Bicycle		
4. Standard Oil Co.		
5. Western Union Telegraph Co.		
6. Labor Unions		
7. Railroad building: Two of the greatest and richest. Find out about the Reading Railroad		
8. Bridge building		
a.		

Complete (February 16-February 20)—*Continued*

Improvement or Invention	Use	Time
9. Improvement in transportation conditions		
10. Small express companies combined until 5 companies take care of most of the express. Name one of to-day.		
11. Postal rates and service improved		
12. Telephone		
13. Farm machinery		
14. New kinds of power		
<i>a.</i>		
<i>b.</i>		
15. Inventions of Thomas Edison		

Job 26. Let us consider some problems that faced our country from 1870 to 1916.

Things to Do: (February 23-March 6)

1. Read about each of these topics during the week of February 23. Use index. Topics:
 - a.* Complaints against railroads after 1870, especially among the farmers of the prairie states of the West.
 - b.* Spanish-American War
 - (1) cause
 - (2) result
 - (3) time
 - c.* Pan-American Exposition
 - d.* Theodore Roosevelt
 - (1) boyhood
 - (2) ranchman
 - (3) president
 - (4) The Panama canal
 - (5) The Chinese question
 - (6) The American boy—*The Young American Reader, Community Interest and Public Spirit*
 - e.* Conservation—*School History of U. S.* by Hart, 1910-1916
 - (1) forests

- (2) water power
 - (3) magnificent scenery
 - (4) coal lands
 - f. European War of 1914
- Prepare to discuss these topics during the week of March 13

Supplementary Jobs

- Job A.** What progress has the negro race made in education, in ability to take care of itself since it was freed in 1863?
- Job B.** Draw a large map of the United States. Show the growth of cities and industries on it. Remember the changes in the New South and other sections that took place after the war.
- Job C.** Write a story of the Johnstown flood just as though you had been one of those who survived.
- Job D.** Write a story about the improvement of the railroad, communication, and transportation services.
- Job E.** Look up information about each of these and report to the class.
- a. Statue of Liberty
 - b. Corn Palace at Mitchell, South Dakota
 - c. Pan-American Congress
 - d. Grant's Tomb
 - e. Hell Gate

Individualized instruction an adjustment to the nature and needs of children. Defining individualized instruction as the adjustment of school work to the nature and needs of children, F. E. Lord,⁷ of the Department of Teacher Training at Michigan State Normal College, believes that it aims at securing maximum growth on the part of each child. He gives the following illustration to show the ease with which individualized materials are being applied in a group of rural schools affiliated with the college:

A school operating under a traditional organization has seven or eight recitations in arithmetic. In each of the recitation groups we find a great range in abilities. To deal separately with each of the groups requires on an average approximately 90 minutes. This allows ten minutes for the first six grades and fifteen minutes each for the two upper grades.

Contrast this instructional set-up with one involving the use of

⁷ F. E. Lord, "Individualized Instruction in a One-Teacher School," *The American Schoolmaster*, November, 1930, pp. 285-290.

individualized materials. In the latter case an entire room, eight grades, has arithmetic at one time. (See illustration opposite.) A period of, say, 30 minutes is sufficient for the individual drill, teacher testing, and supervision of study. Each child is supplied with self-instructive and self-corrective material. Each child works from lesson to lesson, or exercise to exercise and receives assistance entirely in accordance with individual needs. A portion of a given child's time may be spent in self-directed remedial drill, a portion to advanced drill in a new process, and a portion to drill in speed. The fundamentals of such a procedure are (1) each child is working on material adjusted to his own ability, (2) each child is allowed to proceed at his own rate and thereby obtain mastery of one process or phase of a process before proceeding to another, (3) each child receives assistance from the teacher or others at the time of need and entirely in accordance with his particular need.

The plan not only increases efficiency of learning but also makes for economy of time for the pupil and teacher. These statements can actually be supported by records and test results. For example, fifteen or twenty minutes can be saved in arithmetic instruction alone. Also, since the materials are self-instructive, maximum pupil direction is made possible. Pupils loafing as a result of "having their lessons" can be kept at work.

Our work in geography, history, civics, health, and hygiene remain group activities. In so far as possible we have grouped children according to ability. This is especially true of geography and history. In the case of health and hygiene several grades may be included in informal group discussions. In so far as possible, large group projects or activities are employed to teach the necessary facts in these subjects being dealt with on the basis of group instruction.

The proposed scheme of instruction is by no means perfect. There are many aspects of it which must be worked out. The group instruction phases, especially, need to be refined and improved, both from the point of view of curricular content and methods of teaching. It seems to me that the proposed scheme makes the following significant contributions: First, the scheme provides for economy of time for the teacher without decreasing efficiency of learning. Second, the scheme provides for adjustment to the great individual differences found in the abilities of children of similar school age or grade. Third, the scheme provides opportunity for the achievement of such educational values as ability to direct oneself, self-appraisal, and coöperation, which are frequently neglected in traditional instruction. Identification of further contributions awaits more extensive experimentation and trial of the proposed recommendations.



Washtenaw County, Michigan.

INDIVIDUALIZED WORK IN ARITHMETIC.

An individualized arithmetic class at Dixboro one-teacher school near Ypsilanti, Michigan. The entire school is at work on arithmetic at one time, several types of activities taking place simultaneously.

The daily schedule in use in one of the rural schools affiliated with the Michigan State Normal College is here given. It is self-explanatory.

DIXBORO SCHOOL DAILY SCHEDULE⁸

9:00- 9:10	Opening exercises	
9:10-10:30	Reading (Tuesday, Music)—Grades 3-6	Individual
	Grades 1-2 read till 10:00—(workbooks)	
10:00-10:15	7th history	Group
10:15-10:30	8th history	Group
10:30-10:45	Recess	
10:45-11:00	All—number games	Individual
11:00-11:30	All—arithmetic-practice-speed	Individual
11:30-12:00	All—spelling	Individual
12:00- 1:00	Lunch and supervised play	
1:00- 1:20	Primary reading	Individual
1:00- 2:30	Language and activity work	Group and Individual
2:30- 2:45	Recess	
2:45- 3:00	5th geography	Group
3:00- 3:15	4th geography	Group
3:15- 3:40	7th geography	Group
3:40- 4:00	8th agriculture and civics	Group

Only occasional formal work in penmanship.

A program of contracts and individual instruction. Miss Hannah A. Kieffer,⁹ Director of Rural Education at Shippensburg State Teachers College in Pennsylvania, is establishing better teaching units and a program of individual instruction in the one-teacher schools under her supervision. According to Miss Kieffer, who has worked out the whole plan in careful detail, the contracts or better teaching units provide for major and minor problems, questions, references, different levels of learning, expression work, individual and group assistance, drill activities, creative activities, and tentative time interpretations. "Those children completing the unit in advance of the allotted time are given

⁸ Arranged by Helen Anderson, teacher.

⁹ Hannah A. Kieffer, "Better Teaching Units and Individual Instruction," reprint from *Teachers College Herald*, Shippensburg State Teachers College, January, 1930.

TABLE XIII.—BETTER TEACHING UNIT AND INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION PROGRAM FOR ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS*

TIME	CLASS AND SUBJECT	GRADES	DIRECTED ACTIVITY	FREE ACTIVITY
Block A				
9:00-5	Bible reading and prayer	Entire school..	Formal.....	Maximum time limits on units.
9:05-10...	Music.....	Entire school..	Variety of types.....	
9:15-20...	Reading D † A-B silent reading	Grades 1-2... Grades 5-8...	Types adapted to group..... Types adapted to pupil leadership on unit plan.....	Drill activities under pupil leadership includes drill for learning and testing individuals, groups and classes.
9:35-40	C-B-A arithmetic.....	Grades 3-8...	40 min. better teaching units 30 min. class-ind., study-drill M. T. W. Th. Fri. 15 min. 3 4 3 4 Tests 15 min. 5 6 7 8 Tests 10 min. group and ind. help....	
Block B				
10:15-15	Recess.....	Entire school..	Supervised play on the playground.....	Educational games played, a privilege in recognition of achievement. Library reading stressed.
10:30-20...	D reading..... 3 Geography 2.....	Grades 1-2... Grade 3.....	Variety of types..... Modern class procedure based on project idea.....	
10:50-15...	C nature 1..... C history-civics 2.....	Grades 3-4... Grades 3-6...	Class procedure best adapted to primary children.....	
11:05-15...	D arithmetic..... alternate instruction..	Grades 1-2...		

* Hannah A. Kieffer, *op. cit.*, pp. 3-4.

† The groups are as follows: A, Grades 7 and 8; B, Grades 5 and 6; C, Grades 3 and 4; D, Grades 1 and 2.

11:20-40	C-B-A geography 4... 4-B hygiene 1... B nature study 1... A agriculture 1... Homemaking club 1... Lunch at table or desks..	Grades 5-6... Grades 4-6-5... Grades 7-8... Entire school..	40 min. better teaching units M. T. W. Th. Fri. 20 min. 4 A B A B hyg. geography B { group activ. } A 20 min. nat. { and ind. help } agric. One hot dish a day.	Group preparation for club and public meetings. Bench-work, all types of activ- ities adapted to Grades 2 to 8. Relaxation periods encouraged. Creative opportunities for all grades and different subjects.
12:00-60	Assemble school..... D reading.....	Entire school.. Grades 1-2....	Pupil government..... Variety of types..... including silent reading	Playground activities. All types of educative seat- work devices used by pupils. Rest periods encouraged.
1:00-20	C-B-A English 4..... C-B-A oral reading 1..	Grades 3-4... Grades 5-6... Grades 7-8... Grades 3-8...	60 min. better teaching units... 40 min. class-directed study... M. T. W. Th. Fri... C C C C Aud... A B A B Read... 20 min. group activity, individual help..... Instruction and practice..... 5 min. review upper grades..... 10 min. instruct primary..... 10 min. instruct upper grades.....	Socialized atmosphere prevails; rules formulated by pupils only when rights of others are not considered.
1:20-60	D-C-B-A handwriting 2 D-C-B-A spelling 3...	Entire school.. Grades 2-8...	Class assignment—test individual study—test.	School government handles all problems in discipline with the help of the teacher. Pupil directed oral reading en- couraged when pupils qualify for leadership. Sequence in abilities, skills, habits recognized and a high goal as an objective.
2:20-25				

TABLE XIII.—BETTER TEACHING UNIT AND INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION PROGRAM FOR ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS—*Cont.*

TIME	CLASS AND SUBJECT	GRADES	DIRECTED ACTIVITY	FREE ACTIVITY
Block D				
2:45-15	Recess.....	Entire school..	Free play.....	
3:00-15	Oral expression 4..... Art 1 primary.....	Grades 1-2... Grades 1-3...	Impressions stressed..... Art periods may be combined or separate.....	Rapid workers develop additional individual expression units involving a more enriched experience intellectually and socially.
3:15-15	Art 1 upper grades.... C oral and silent rdg. 4.	Grades 4-8... Grades 3-4...	Variety of types.....	
3:30-30	B-A history-civics 4... A hygiene 1.....	Grades 5-8... Grades 7-8...	30 min. better teaching units M. T. W. Th. Fri. 15 min. B { B A } B B civics History } hyg. 15 min. A { group activity A civics } and ind. help } hyg.	Recognition of required and additional achievements is essential as an ultimate goal.
4:00	Dismissal.....	Entire school..		

EXPLANATIONS: In arranging this program all State requirements were considered. Alternation of instruction and subject matter by years is in keeping with the State Syllabus. History and civics are alternated by years or by days.

Oral Expression for Grades 1 and 2 includes stories: literature, history, civic virtue, hygiene, nature; poems and picture study, English habit formation games; a limited amount of blackboard work. Group grades 1, 2, 3 in hygiene.

In introducing the unit plan of instruction it will be advisable to develop one block a term using a more formal program for the other three blocks. The Better Teaching Unit time-distribution is suggestive; rearrange to meet needs.

special privileges in the library, at the work bench, as pupil helpers with drill projects, or at the game table. The slow and average learners are followed closely by the teacher and are given necessary help and encouragement."

The following guides for planning better teaching units are suggested by Miss Kieffer:

1. Plan all units coöperatively with the pupils who are to develop the unit.
2. Select the unit in keeping with the blocking for the year.
3. Word the major problem and the minor problems.
4. Analyze the minor problems, giving specific questions and specific references. Suggest required reading and a list of supplementary readings. The new vocabulary should be listed both in assignment and during preparation. Correlation of material bearing on the problem from other subjects should be encouraged.
5. Types of pupil activities with a maximum time allotment are arranged by the pupils and the teacher.
6. Expression units by the class, group, or individual plan should be selected and developed with minimum essentials as guides.
7. Drill projects should be planned and leaders chosen.
8. Encourage creative work by groups and individuals.
9. Review work should be stressed by objective tests and expression work.
10. Reviews at lengthened intervals may be given by using educational games as well as objective tests.
11. Impression activities need special emphasis and much time. Here is where tools of different types aid in developing clear concepts. Directed study and individual help should be stressed.

Miss Kieffer gives the following advice:

Begin Better Teaching Units with the seventh and eighth grades. When these children are progressing and pleased with the plan, develop a Better Teaching Unit with Group B. When the two groups are able to go forward with their plans according to schedule, invite Group C to participate. At all times follow the state plan of alternation in branches.

The following example of a better teaching unit as worked out by Miss Kieffer and her students is indicative of the types of units called for by the program.

BETTER TEACHING UNIT IN COMMUNITY HISTORY ¹⁰

Major Question: What can we learn concerning the history of this community?

Minor Questions:

- A. Who used this land before the early settlers arrived?
 1. Which tribes roamed over this area?
 2. What can you learn of their customs and ways of living?
 3. How did they treat the early settlers?
 4. Have you heard or read any legends about the Indians of this territory? Summarize in writing giving reference and date of reference.
 5. Have you seen any Indian relics? Photograph or make drawings and give reference and date of reference.
- B. From which country or countries in Europe did the early settlers come?
 1. Why did they come?
 2. Who were some of their leaders?
 3. Where did they locate?
 4. List some of the names. Give some of the different spellings if possible. Give references.
- C. How did the early settlers live?
 1. Describe a log cabin.
 2. Which is the oldest house in the community?
 3. Name some of the things that the early settlers used which are being used today; which are not being used today.
 4. Photograph and describe early furniture which you own; choice pieces only. Make drawings of other pieces.
 5. Compare the methods of preparing meals by the early settlers with our methods today.
 6. Have you seen a room furnished with antique furniture? Describe it.
 7. Have you been to Mount Vernon, Virginia; or Weiser Park, Pennsylvania?

Use post cards to illustrate your description.
- D. Schools.
 1. Compare an early school with our school.
 2. Where did the teacher live?
 3. Photograph the oldest building in the community.
 4. Have you any old textbooks, at least seventy-five years old?

Copy two interesting pages for the file.

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, pp. 17-19.

5. Make a list of all old books in the community giving the name and address of the owner in each case, the exact title of the book, the name of the author, publishers, and date of publication.
6. Name leading citizens of the community who at some time attended our school. Tell briefly about their achievements.
7. Copy any descriptions of early schools.
- E. Where were the early churches built?
 1. How did the settlers go to church?
 2. How did the interior compare with the interior of our churches today?
 3. Were the services similar to ours?
 4. How should we care for old burial plots on the farm? Old cemeteries?
- F. How did the early settlers travel?
 1. Where were the first roads?
 2. Can you find any old maps? Make copies.
 3. Have old residents relate what they recall of legends of early travel. Give reference and date of reference.
 4. Clip pictures of the history of transportation.
 5. Where were the canal routes?
 6. When were railroads built in this section?
 7. What can you learn about the early inns?
 8. List books where good descriptions on travel are found.
- G. How did the early settlers make a living and supply their needs?
 1. Where were the mills in the community?
 2. Copy a description of a blacksmith shop.
 3. Copy a description of a country store.
- H. How did the early settlers solve their problems of government?
 1. Name some of the early political leaders.
 2. Who were the Revolutionary heroes from this community?
 3. Where are the Revolutionary heroes buried?
- I. Where were the early forts located in this section?
 1. Why were they built?
 2. Who can write an interesting description of a fort he has seen?
 3. Copy the description of an Indian attack on an early fort.
- J. Add any topics that may have been omitted.

Expression Unit:

- A. Development of a community file. Two copies should be assembled; in fact, individual files may be developed.
- B. Copies of deeds, maps, legends, should be made. All should have reference and date of reference.
- C. Kodak pictures of historical places, fine old buildings, pumps, mills,

doorways, samplers, china, pewter, furniture, Indian relics, old glass, hooked rugs, old quilts, old fireplaces, etc., should have authentic titles and accurate dates. They become valuable data in a file. Children will thus become acquainted with fine Pennsylvania antiques and may some day prevent their being sacrificed to antique collectors. The relics of the Pennsylvania pioneers should remain in the homes of their descendants and should be appreciated and preserved by them.

- D. With the consent of the owners a list of old books, records, and furniture found in the homes of the community might be filed. These data will be valuable for research work.
- E. Expression units should be assembled and exhibited once a year at a parent-teacher meeting. Community interest and support will thus be secured.

This unit of work is developed in most school systems during the fifth or sixth year. The reference material must come from the homes and the state library. This unit cannot be completed within a time limit. It is hoped that the attitudes and interests will continue through life. The community interest is essential to the success of this unit.

A suggested program for a six-grade two-teacher school. A number of programs carefully worked out in accordance with the best thought on program-making are included in the Alabama state course of study. The programs on pages 158-161 suggested for a six-grade two-teacher Alabama school will prove helpful to supervisors and teachers who are engaged in constructing programs.

The following suggestions for using the Alabama programs are given:

1. One long period per week is provided for reading in each grade. The children may be interested in preparing for this period by working in groups to dramatize a story, to plan a report to the whole class on stories read by the groups, to read aloud selections from a story chosen by the group; or the teacher may wish to use the time to supervise library reading, to direct the reading interests of pupils, or to check outside reading.
2. The writing follows the language in order that the writing may grow out of the language work. In the first two grades spelling is taught in connection with writing. All pupils not reciting should be provided with work related to the major subject of the next period. For example,

reading activities should be the basis of seat work before the recess period and language activities the basis for work following the morning recess period.

3. The short periods in subjects involving skills should be used to check up and drill on these skills. A few minutes of carefully directed drill makes for the most effective development of skills.

4. All elementary science is scheduled for the same day. Occasionally all classes should be combined for a field trip or project of general interest.

5. Writing, English, and spelling should be centered around the same activities. For this reason, they are scheduled at the same periods. Special checks should be provided for each subject as the need arises.

6. A school-activity period is provided once each week. It should be used for a free type of activity in which all pupils may engage; for example, beautifying the schoolroom or grounds, preparing a play, a program, or taking an excursion.

7. The period for physical education should be a joyous period of physical activity carefully directed toward the achievement of a desired outcome.

A program for Grades 1 and 2 in a four teacher school. The following program is included because it is very popular with those teachers who are using it. The time schedule here given is for the lessons and activities of pupils of the first and second grades in a four-teacher school.¹¹

9:00- 9:15	Informal discussion of topics related to pupils' interests in nature study, music, art, character traits, literature, health.
9:15-10:15	Social Studies including 1B, 1A and 2. Reading classes and seatwork based upon informational material (from reading texts) related to the social studies. Rest. Rhythmic singing, or singing games.
10:15-10:30	Number work—Grade 1.
10:30-10:45	Directed play and physical education
10:45-12:00	English expression (Making use of content of social studies) Word study 1 Writing 1 and 2 Phonics 1 Spelling 2

¹¹ Prepared by E. Ames Boettner, Supervisor of Rural Schools, Baltimore County, Maryland.

TABLE XIV.—SUGGESTED PROGRAM FOR A SIX-GRADE TWO-TEACHER ALABAMA SCHOOL*

GRADES 1-3†

This program is of a flexible type and provides for large units of work and correlation of the various subjects. It distributes the weekly time allotment in such a manner as to give at least one long period during the week to each grade in each major subject.

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:35	Period for planning and starting work for all grades				
	Reading Section A-1	Reading Section B-1	Reading 2	Reading 3	School activities Period
9:35	Reading Section B-1	Reading, Section A-1 This period may be used for the bulletin board, the newspaper, or other reading activities which create a desire to read.			
10:00		Recess for all grades			
10:10		Reading 1 Use this period to relate reading to other activities of the children.			
10:35	Reading 2	Reading 2		Reading 2	Reading 2
	Reading 3	Reading 3	Reading 3	Reading 2	Reading 2
10:55	Language 1-2	Language 1-2	Language 1-2	Language 1-2	Reading 3
11:15		Writing, Section A-1—Older children who need special writing instruction may be in this group.			
11:25		Writing, Section B-1—Correlate closely with other groups. Include spelling of an informal type.			
11:35					

TABLE XV.—SUGGESTED PROGRAM FOR A SIX-GRADE TWO-TEACHER ALABAMA SCHOOL*

GRADES 3-6 †

This program is a flexible type and provides for large units of work and correlation of the various subjects. It distributes the weekly time allotment in such a manner as to give at least one long period during the week to each grade in each major subject.

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
Period for planning and starting work for all grades					
8:35		Reading 5-6	School activities period	Social studies 4	Social studies 5-6
9:15					
9:25			Reading 4	Social studies 5-6	Social studies 4
9:45	Reading 5-6	Reading 4			
	Arithmetic 3	Arithmetic 3	Arithmetic 3	Arithmetic 3	Reading 5-6
10:00	Recess for all grades				
10:10					
	Social studies 4	Social studies 4	Social studies 4	Reading 4	Reading 4
10:30					
10:35	Social studies 5-6	Social studies 5-6	Social studies 5-6	Reading 5-6	Language 5-6
11:05					
	Language 3-4	Language 3-4	Language 3-4	Language 3-4	Language 3-4
11:25					

11:45	Language 5-6	Language 5-6	Language 5-6	Language 5-6	Writing 3-6
11:50					
12:00	Health 4-6	Writing 3-6	Writing 3-6	Writing 3-6	Health 4-6
12:20	Supervised lunch for all grades				
12:30	Rest for all grades				
12:35	Period for planning and starting work for all grades				
12:50	Spelling 3-6	Arithmetic 4	Spelling 3-6	Arithmetic 5	Spelling 3-6
12:55		Arithmetic 5			
1:00		Arithmetic 6	Arithmetic 5	Arithmetic 4	Arithmetic 3
1:10	Arithmetic 6				
1:30	Physical Education for all grades				
2:00	Rest for all grades				
2:05			Arithmetic 4	Arithmetic 6	Arithmetic 4
2:20	Arithmetic 4	Art 4-6	Arithmetic 6	Elementary science 6	Arithmetic
2:25	Arithmetic 5		Arithmetic 6	Elementary science 4-5	Arithmetic 6
2:40	Music 4-6		Music 4-6		
3:00					

* Ibid.

† The third grade recites in both rooms.

12:00- 1:00	Luncheon and playground activities
1:00- 1:15	Literature or library period (To discourage after-lunch lack of interest)
1:15- 1:45	Reading (1B and 1A)
1:45- 2:00	Music
2:00- 2:30	Arithmetic 2 and drill for vocabulary in reading 1 and 2
2:30- 2:45	Directed play
2:45- 3:00	Reading 2
3:00- 3:30	Special class for those needing help in mechanics of reading, Grades 4, 5, 6, 7.

Summary. It is evident that a carefully constructed program is necessary to organize the day's work for effective learning and to economize time and energy. This is true especially of small rural schools with their many grades and many subjects. In order to secure a fair time-allotment for the classes required by the course of study, the number of lesson periods must be reduced to a minimum. This means that pupils will be taught by groups rather than by grades. Work should probably be outlined for each year a child remains in the same group, under the scheme generally known as the yearly alternation of subject matter. Subjects closely interrelated should be grouped on programs and many correlations should be suggested. There are some obvious disadvantages involved in the combination of classes and alternation of subject matter, but experience has proved that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

The small rural school has conditions especially favorable to individual instruction. In order to meet individual differences among the pupils and to promote independent habits of study, programs are here presented that provide that the work is arranged in units. Examples of units are also given.

It is essential that both supervisors and teachers understand the principles and problems in program-making, and that they know how to adjust the program to fit the needs of local schools.

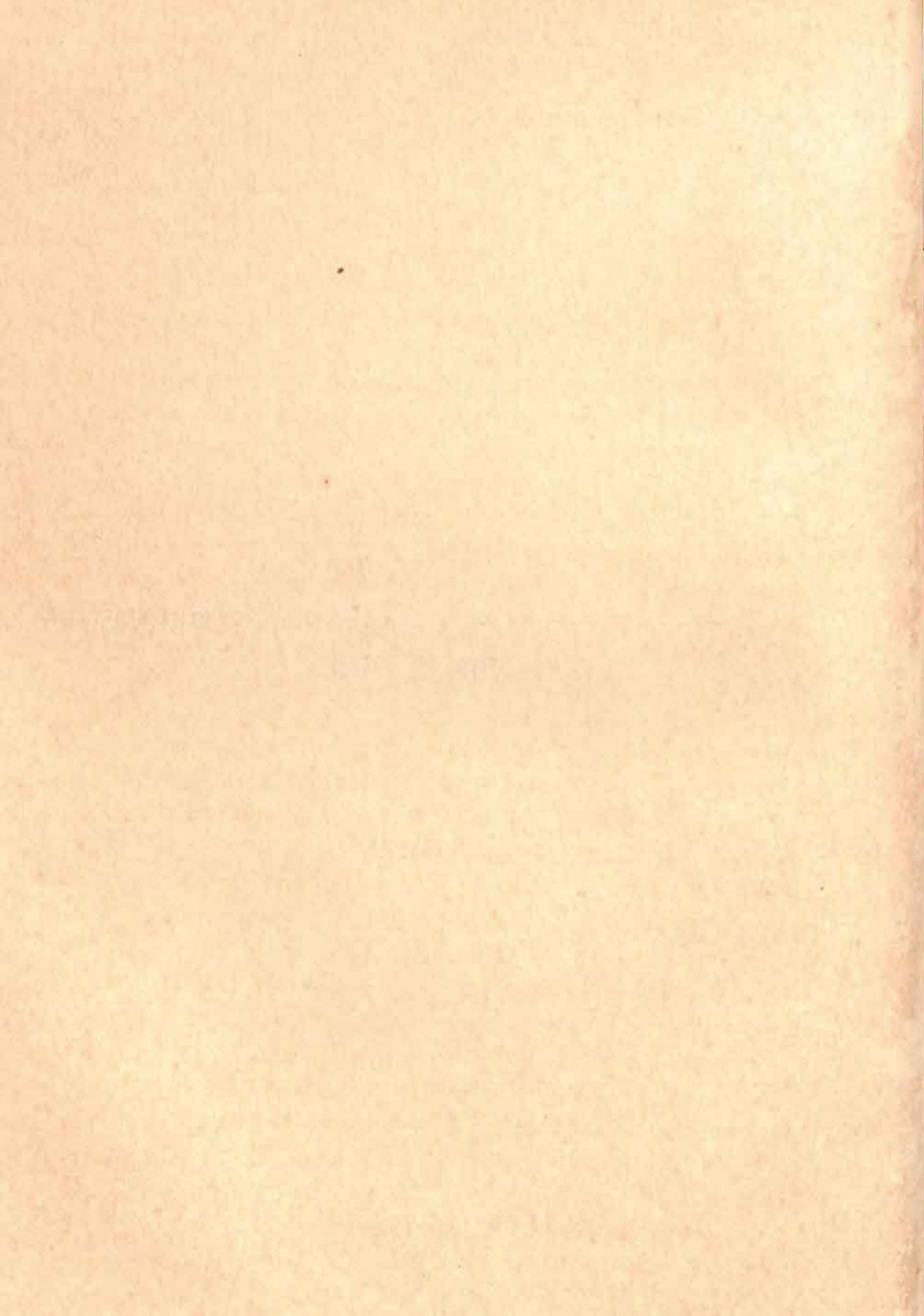
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PART III

FINDING FACTS AS A BASIS FOR SUPERVISORY
PROCEDURE



CHAPTER VI

SUPERVISORY USES OF TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

Testing as a measuring, diagnosing, and checking device in teaching and supervision is so well recognized and used that it now has its own five-foot shelf of books presenting authoritative treatment of its development, present-day uses, limitations, and values. The purpose in including a chapter dealing with the supervisory uses of tests is not to explain their general use, but to call attention to their specific application to the problems in rural schools.

It is repeated here that a rural system of schools does not differ in its fundamental educational problems from an urban system. The general objectives of a testing program, the problems of test selection, the plan of administering tests, the techniques of tabulating and interpreting results, and prescribing and carrying out corrective measures—these do not present new problems as applied to rural schools. It is essential, however, to present a complete picture of the agencies and devices of rural-school supervision and the application of known principles of a testing program to the solution of rural problems.

Some rural situations that suggest the values of testing as a supervisory procedure. Since supervision as an agency for the improvement of teaching and learning in rural schools is, relatively, in the stage of infancy, county superintendents and other administrative rural-school officials adopted in an early day the county school examination as a means of evaluating instruction and of standardizing and grading the school product. This examination was usually given at the end of the seventh or eighth grade. It was uniform in construction and countywide in appli-

cation. In some states the rural pupils gathered at convenient village centers in the spring and "took" the examination supervised by neutral officials with the rural teacher hovering protectively near her brood. Those pupils who obtained satisfactory grades in the various required school subjects were awarded county elementary diplomas or were certified as scholastically eligible to enter the public high schools. The examinations were usually of the essay type with all of the weaknesses inherent in such examinations. Teachers spent a number of weeks during the spring months preparing pupils for these examinations. The examination questions of previous years were treasured in the teacher's hope chest for use during this period and enterprising commercial companies published the questions of a past decade in pamphlet form for purchase and use in rural schools. Often, the pupils, after taking the examinations, left school without completing the term because in their minds and in the minds of their parents, the examination was not only the culmination but the end-all of their academic endeavors. Bitter tears, community controversies, and lost teaching positions often followed the giving of the county examinations. In other words, the county examination was used to test the achievements of pupils, to determine their promotion, and to rate the effectiveness of the teacher.

The pioneer studies of Starch and Elliott and others showing the startling range of marks assigned to such examinations impaired the confidence of superintendents and supervisors in this method of evaluating school work. They began, somewhat timidly to be sure, to substitute standardized tests in the various elementary subjects for the essay type of examinations.

Another factor has constituted a distinct problem in rural schools—the overpromotion of pupils. Since all of the elementary grades are in charge of one, two, or three teachers, the promotion policy has been an extremely elastic one. In a small community home pressure to bring about promotion of pupils is often keenly felt. The result has been that in many cases an

acceleration occurred, unwarranted by the pupil's ability. Particularly in the upper grades has this been true. Parents have been in haste to have their children "graduated" from the home school. A careful regrading of the pupils in a rural-school system means the acceleration of some of the pupils, but also the demotion of many. A testing program¹ is of value in contributing to the accuracy of such a regrading program.

Setting up the objectives of a testing program. After the methods of giving and scoring standardized tests had come to be well understood, they became the educational vogue. Tests in large quantities and varieties were purchased and scored. The results of the tests, expressed in class and grade ranges and medians, were matched with national norms, recorded on cards, and filed away. The objectives of the testing program in known needs of the school system had not been determined. A testing program should be undertaken only when definite problems demand attention and when tests may be used to advantage in finding the solution to these problems.

Brooks² describes his work as a supervisor of twenty-six rural, ungraded, one-teacher schools in New Hampshire. After spending several weeks in visiting schools and conferring with teachers, he spent a week in analyzing the conditions that he had found. As a result of this analysis the following problems demanded attention.

(1) To grade the schools fairly and accurately; (2) to find more accurate ways of measuring the progress of pupils; (3) to find a practical method of supervising study and of teaching how to study. He decided that a testing program would assist in the solution of these problems. His objectives were before him.

Although it is impossible to indicate all of the valid objectives to be realized through the use of tests, certain objectives, to the

¹ S. S. Brooks, *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1922), p. 10.

² *Ibid.*

accomplishment of which a testing program will contribute materially, are suggested below.³

(a) *To determine levels of achievement for classes, grades, and the rural-school system.* Both teachers and pupils need to become acquainted with acceptable standards in the various elementary skills. They need, also, to know the position of the class or grade, and each individual in it with respect to these standards. Is their work of sufficiently high quality? What is the position of each school in terms of the standard accomplishment in the county school system?

(b) *To determine variability of achievement for classes, grades, and the rural-school system.* For many years the attention of teachers, supervisors, and school administrators has been directed to the great variability existing among classes in intelligence, reading accomplishment, arithmetic skills, spelling, etc. Regrading, attention to individual disabilities, and remedial treatment cannot be undertaken intelligently unless one knows the amount of variability existing before a corrective program is undertaken.

(c) *To determine both levels of intelligence and variability of intelligence for classes, grades, and the school system.* Intelligence is an important factor in learning and teaching. Accomplishment is in a large measure dependent upon it. A testing program combined with class marks, and the teacher's judgment furnishes valuable data for the solution of this important adjustment problem.

(d) *To determine the amount of educational retardation or acceleration for classes, grades, and the rural-school system.* Before a constructive program of supervision can be initiated, the data indicated above need to be ascertained. Standardized tests are, at the present time, the best instruments of measuring retardation or acceleration as related to chronological age.

(e) *To determine the causes of failure, retardation, and elimi-*

³ Liberal use has been made of unpublished materials furnished by Dr. T. L. Torgerson of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin.

nation. Tests have been devised that are sufficiently diagnostic in character, so that the causes producing failure may be ascertained to some degree by their means. Retardation may be a matter of special disability. Elimination from school may be caused by specific types of difficulty. Failure, retardation, and elimination are sufficiently costly to the individual and to the school system so that a careful analysis of contributing causes becomes an important objective of a testing program.

(f) *To determine the individual differences in classes and grades.* The twentieth century has witnessed the emergence of the individual pupil from the mass. Some authorities hail it as the outstanding educational achievement of the present century. We are beginning "to teach the pupil." The small classes present in the rural school make the individualization of instruction quite practical. It is quite possible to disregard gradation and consider the individual pupil to a far greater degree in the rural school than can be done in the urban school with its large class and grade registrations. A testing program will accentuate and bring into relief the individual differences that become the basis for true pupil guidance.

(g) *To aid supervisors in determining:*

1. time allotments for various subjects
2. selection of textbooks
3. selection and distribution of auxiliary educational supplies
4. the adequacy of the curriculum

The grouping of these items is not intended to minimize their importance. Certain common elements make their joint treatment possible. A testing program should assist in answering such questions as the following: Is a sufficient amount of time or too much time being devoted to spelling, arithmetic, and so on? Should the time allotted to subjects be redistributed? Are the textbooks in use adequate to the demands of the curriculum?

Are there weak spots in the curriculum? Are certain skills understressed? Are there "gaps" in the curriculum? Is there sufficient recurrence of certain activities to bring about desirable levels of skills? Should supplementary practice materials be provided? If so, in what subjects and topics? Such questions as these are merely illustrative of the types to be raised and in part answered through the use of standardized tests.

(h) *To determine the rate of progress of pupils in classes.* When the objectives of a supervisory program have been determined, the agencies for the realization of the program selected, and the instructional procedures fixed, it becomes necessary from time to time to measure the progress of pupils in classes in order to ascertain the effectiveness of the program, and to make necessary modifications during its progress. Progress tests are invaluable to the teacher and the supervisor for the purpose of bringing about such essential adjustments of a supervisory program.

(i) *To evaluate supervision.* Does supervision pay? Is it justified educationally and economically? A testing program helps to answer such questions. No further discussion of this objective is presented here, since all of Chapter XIV is devoted to the discussion of the objective evaluation of supervision in which tests play an important rôle.

(j) *To determine special aptitudes of pupils.* The past decade has seen the rapid development of vocational and educational guidance and counselling. The development of this important field has been made possible by the testing movement. This guidance and counselling will be most effective when it is carried on by the teacher. Teachers are not now trained to do it. Supervisors will assist in the training of teachers in this field through the use of tests, many of them non-instructional in character.

(k) *To make intelligent and comprehensive reports to County Boards of Education.* Education has been looked upon as an intangible and an immeasurable factor in one's life. Teachers have been able to "get by" because no one knew how to inventory the products of learning. Whereas no claim is made that the scores

of standard tests furnish a complete inventory of educational results, they at least, are a partial product. County boards of education can be informed of the educational results of teaching and supervision through annual reports of pupil progress as measured by such standardized tests.

Developing among teachers a favorable attitude toward the use of tests. Perhaps this is no longer necessary. The use of standardized tests is taught, now, in almost every normal school and teachers' college. Summer-school sessions all over the country offer such courses. Nevertheless, there are teachers who are still distrustful of standard tests, who believe that a standard test is a teacher-rating scale disguised. Strange as it may appear, there are teachers who do not understand the real value and use of standard tests. No testing program will be entirely successful unless the teachers of the schools being tested believe in it.

Brooks tells how he brought the teachers of his rural supervisory unit to feel the need for standardized tests. His technique was similar to that of Starch and Elliott. He hectographed a copy of a pupil's arithmetic examination containing ten problems and asked the twenty-four teachers to correct and grade the papers.⁴ The grades ranged from 65 to 94. They then analyzed the methods of marking to discover the causes of the lack of agreement. Several teachers' meetings were devoted to grading papers, ranking examination questions in order of difficulty, determining the frequency with which certain questions were "missed," finding medians, scores, and so on. The teachers soon became aware of the difficulties of scoring the essay-type examinations and suggested that they at least be supplemented by the use of standardized tests.

Several years ago, the writer gave a simple arithmetic test to a group of pupils. Instead of finding the scores made on the tests, he found the relative frequency of problem errors. These errors were analyzed, classified, illustrated, the causes determined,

⁴ S. S. Brooks, *op. cit.*, Ch. iii.

and corrective measures suggested by a committee of teachers. In this school system, testing for diagnostic purposes was wholeheartedly endorsed and enthusiastically carried out by the teachers. As soon as teachers realize the uses and limitations of standardized tests, any antagonism to them disappears.

While the following suggestions may be entirely unnecessary to-day, they are offered as one method of developing a favorable attitude toward a testing program.

1. Demonstrate to teachers that the grades on essay tests are unreliable.
2. Analyze with teachers the scope of typical essay examinations to determine whether or not they sample the pupils' knowledge over an adequate range.
3. Give an unstandardized test in some field and analyze the skills tested and the results.
4. Give a standardized survey test for the same purpose.
5. Show the diagnostic value of certain tests.

Administering a testing program. In the administration of a testing program, five steps are important:

(1) training teachers to give tests; (2) uniformity in giving tests; (3) methods of handling test scores; (4) interpreting the results; (5) modification of instruction and provisions for corrective measures.

1. *Training teachers to give tests.* Barr and Burton⁵ in discussing this topic make the following statements:

Practically all tests are accompanied by sheets of directions, and not a few have elaborate manuals. The conditions under which the test is taken, the manner of giving the directions, even the exact wording in some cases, all affect the results, and care must be exercised to see that the administration of any test conforms with standardized conditions. Only by exercising this care can comparable results be obtained.

When testing is placed on a voluntary basis and where there is no cen-

⁵ A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (D. Appleton & Co., 1926), p. 309.

tral bureau to assist teachers, the superintendent and supervisors should provide training for teachers in the giving, scoring of tests, and the interpretation of results. The teacher who undertakes testing should make every possible effort to become acquainted with the test before giving it, the directions for giving, and the directions for scoring. Any change from standard testing conditions, that is, any variation which tends either to increase or decrease the scores, should be avoided. The comparison of test scores with norms is useless unless tests are given under standard conditions.

At a general meeting of rural teachers, the supervisor should give them the test, following exactly the directions furnished by the author. After they have taken the test they should score it, the supervisor making certain that they are using the author's directions for scoring. In some counties the rural teachers have observed the test given to a group of pupils and have then scored the results, recording the score for each pupil on a sheet of paper. Later the scores given by the various teachers for each pupil are compared and any deviations noted.

2. *Insuring uniformity in giving tests.* In order that the giving, scoring and tabulating of tests may attain a reasonable degree of uniformity throughout the county, general directions, in addition to those furnished with the tests, are necessary. The Detroit Board of Education issues a booklet of such directions which, although prepared for a city school system, are equally valuable for a county unit of supervision. These instructions as quoted by Barr and Burton⁶ are as follows:

Instruction to teachers. Specific instructions for giving, scoring, and tabulating each of the various tests will be found on later pages, but certain principles apply to all tests, and those principles are stated in the paragraphs which follow. Comparisons of the results of tests by trained examiners with those from tests by teachers have proved that teachers who follow instructions and keep exact time allowance are able to secure reliable results.

The scores from a test have no meaning apart from the conditions under which it is given. That is, if a teacher gives a test three times

⁶ Barr and Burton, *op. cit.*, p. 309.

in a week, and reports the third trial only, the third trial may not measure at all the ability that is measured by the tests given by other teachers who followed instructions and gave the test but once. The scores from a four-minute trial are not comparable with those from a five-minute trial. Therefore, teachers should realize that detailed and precise instructions are given in order that conditions may be uniform from test to test, and from school to school.

Permission to Change. In the giving of a particular test in different rooms, adjustments are often necessary and teachers should feel free to make such common-sense adjustments as are demanded by the local situation.

The conditions under which a test is given are of two kinds: vital and significant. Changes in significant conditions are relatively unimportant, but the slightest change in the vital conditions should be reported in writing on the class record card for that test. The vital conditions are timing, incentives, preparation, and scoring.

Timing. The value of a test for comparative purposes is lost if exact times are not kept. Just before giving a test, consult the tables of time allowances and record at once on the class record card in the space provided, the time you are to use for your grade. At the time of the second test, be sure to use the same time allowances.

In giving a test, use a watch having a second hand. Always give the signal "start" when the second hand is exactly on the 60 mark. It is easier to keep exact times from this point on a watch than from any other.

Incentives. The manner of the teacher may have a great effect upon the results. Do not hurry the children or create a tense situation. The best results will be secured if the children work easily and naturally. On no account say or do anything to emphasize either speed or accuracy. Give the tests as if they were a part of the daily work.

Be careful also not to make any appeals to the children other than those contained in the instructions. It is very easy and quite natural to unduly stimulate the children by discussing the meaning of the results, the last tests, standards, etc., but such additional remarks may defeat the purposes for which the test is given. The time for such discussions is after the test and not before. The purpose of the test is not to extract from the children the utmost of which they are capable, but to determine what they will do under the test conditions.

Therefore, give the tests quietly and composedly, with as little depar-

ture from normal classroom conditions as possible. Naturalness and spontaneous concentration because of interest in a pleasurable exercise are the conditions desired.

Preparation. Tests should be given without warning, and no special preparation should be made for them. No similar tests should be given during the preceding week. By special preparation is meant such things as practicing giving a test, practice on the special content of a test, drilling just to make a showing in the test. Regular work is not special preparation.

Explanations. In some tests, practice material is provided, that the children may know what is expected of them in the test itself. In such cases additional explanations are often necessary before all the children are ready for the test. These the teacher should feel free to make. She should, however, follow the general model provided, taking care not to use any of the material in the test itself, or to go beyond the explanations suggested.

Time of Day. The tests may be given any time during the day that suits the teacher's convenience, but probably the middle of the morning is the best time. Only very unusual circumstances ought to lead to the giving of the tests on other than the days indicated in the general or special instructions issued by the superintendent.

Mistakes. When mistakes are made in timing or following directions, or when tests are interrupted by fire drills or the like, repeat the test two or three days later. In all such cases, however, record the facts under "Remarks." Similarly, any teacher should feel privileged to repeat a test which she regards as unsatisfactory, provided both scores are reported with appropriate comments. The tests are meant as aids to teachers, and any variation desired is permissible provided proper records are made so that the results may be studied.

3. *Methods of handling test scores.* The scoring of papers by teachers offers little difficulty. The instructions prepared by authors for the scoring of their tests are usually capable of only one interpretation. For each exercise there is usually only one right answer. The correct answers are given in test keys.

The Detroit Manual⁷ suggests the following:

⁷ Quoted in Barr and Burton, *op. cit.*, pp. 311-312.

When the papers have been exchanged, read the correct answers and as far as possible have the children mark the papers. If this is done carefully, the children's scoring will be reliable in grades above the third. For the third and lower grades the scoring must be done by the teacher. Where children are known to be unintelligent, their scoring should be checked.

Certain kinds of scores cannot be found by the children, but teachers are expected to avail themselves of the children's help just as far as possible, not only because it saves the teacher and hastens the completion of the final tabulations, but chiefly because such following of instructions, correction of papers, etc., is a valuable form of training. That is, teachers are asked to regard following instructions, scoring papers, etc., as a part of the regular educational work for the grade.

The educational value of a testing program is determined to a large extent by the methods used in handling test scores for the purpose of class and individual analysis. Most of this work must be carried on by the supervisors. At general teachers' meeting the statistical procedures used should be explained. The teachers should be taught the meanings of such terms as frequency distribution, raw and derived scores, mean, median, modal, range, quartiles, norms, deviations, etc. The scores for a class should be distributed on the basis of frequency, and curves should be constructed.

Torgerson⁸ has listed the following methods of handling test scores in order to obtain the most thoroughgoing analysis of the materials:

A. Classification and Tabulation of Test Scores

1. Frequency distribution of raw scores by classes and grades
2. Frequency distribution of derived scores by classes and grades
3. Frequency surface (histogram, polygon) of raw scores by classes and grades
4. Frequency surface (histogram, polygon) of derived scores by classes and grades

⁸ T. L. Torgerson, "Methods of Handling Test Scores for Purposes of Class and Individual Analysis," Unpublished materials, University of Wisconsin.

B. Measures of Central Tendency

1. Mean raw scores for class and grade
2. Mean derived scores for class and grade
3. Median raw score for class and grade
4. Median derived score for class and grade
5. Modal raw score for class or grade
6. Modal derived score for class and grade

C. Measures of Variability

1. Class or grade range
2. Semi-interquartile range of Q
3. Standard deviation for class or grade
4. Mean or average deviation for class or grade

D. Use of Norms and Derived Scores

1. Per cent of pupils reaching or exceeding the norms
2. Percentile scores for individuals, class, and grade
3. Grade status for individuals, class, and grade
4. Educational age for individuals, class, and grade
5. Educational quotient for individuals, class, and grade
6. Months of educational retardation for individuals, class, and grade
7. Months of educational acceleration for individuals, class, and grade
8. Per cent of class retarded one, two, or three months, etc.
9. Per cent of class accelerated one, two, or three months, etc.
10. Per cent of class at age or at grade
11. Per cent of class of varying degrees of educational brightness

E. Relationship between Two or More Abilities

1. Educational profile of individual, class, or grade
2. Scatter diagram of intelligence quotients and educational quotients
3. Scatter diagram of mental age and educational age
4. Scatter diagram of percentile rankings on intelligence and achievement tests
5. Scatter diagram of raw scores or derived scores for two subjects
6. Scatter diagram of two abilities in the same subjects, as rate and quality, rate and comprehension, speed and accuracy, etc.
7. Accomplishment quotients by individuals, class, and grade

F. *Analysis of Errors*

1. Frequency distribution of all errors
2. Per cent of class failing on each question
3. Per cent of class failing on each type of question
4. Specific questions failed by each pupil
5. Per cent of class making same error
6. Per cent of wrong answers that are the same
7. Psychological analysis of reasons for wrong answers

Not all of the above methods should be used for any single standard test. The selection of methods of treatment of test scores will be determined by the objectives in mind in giving the test.

4. *Interpreting the results of tests, diagnosing difficulties.* At the beginning of this chapter it was suggested that a testing program should be undertaken only when definite problems demand attention and when the results of tests may be used to advantage in finding the solution to these problems. Illustrative objectives for testing were suggested and discussed. Test results should be analyzed in the light of these or other objectives or problems. If, for example, the purpose of the testing program is to secure information which will help in an accurate regrading of the class, the test scores of each individual should be compared with standard grade or age norms in order to determine the position of each pupil from a grade accomplishment standpoint. The curves and tables prepared should answer such questions as the following: What is the amount of educational retardation or acceleration in the class, grade, or school system? What individual differences in rate of work, accuracy, levels of difficulty surmounted, areas of skill mastered, and methods of work exist among the pupils? Is the time allotment for this subject adequate or excessive? Are the pupils progressing at a normal rate? What special abilities or disabilities does each pupil possess? What is the variability of achievement? What are the specific difficulties of these pupils? These questions do not exhaust the list. They

are only illustrative of the multitude of questions that may be answered by test tabulations.

Tests given, scored, the results tabulated, and filed away will not profit a rural-school system. Tests are for the purpose of supplying teachers and supervisors with information upon which to base changes in instructional, supervisory, and administrative procedures.

Osborn⁹ gave the Clapp English Test to the pupils in sixteen cities and villages and in the rural schools of fourteen counties. The following analysis of errors was made:

The errors on the Clapp English Test are distributed as indicated in Table XVI, pages 182-184.

The analysis makes clear the fact that punctuation and incorrect verb forms constitute approximately 50 per cent of all their usage difficulties. The analysis itself becomes the interpretation of the test scores. It supplies the teacher and the supervisor with the information upon which to base changes in instructional procedures.

The interpretation of the results of tests is conditioned by the character of the tests used. For example, Brueckner divides diagnostic tests into three groups: (1) The *sampling* test in arithmetic is used to determine the ability of the pupil to work selected varieties of examples in the different processes. After the giving and scoring of the test, the analysis is made to show the examples that are worked, incorrectly most frequently. The purpose here is not to compare achievements with standards but to determine the ability of the pupils to work certain types of examples. It is not to be assumed that such a test will reveal, without further study and testing, the exact cause of the pupil's difficulty. (2) Tests which point out the element in a process that is the source of difficulty. One type of test assists the teachers or supervisor in determining the specific elements in a process that are causing the pupil difficulty. The Wisconsin Inventory

⁹ W. J. Osborn, "Report of Errors in Language," mimeographed report issued by the Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1925.

TABLE XVI.—ANALYSIS OF ERRORS MADE ON CLAPP ENGLISH TEST BY PUPILS IN 16 CITIES AND VILLAGES AND 14 COUNTIES

KINDS OF ERRORS	PER CENT OF TOTAL ERRORS	
	16 Cities and Villages	14 Counties
<i>Capitals</i>		
1. Beginning sentence	*	0.3
2. Name of month	0.3	0.4
3. Name of day of week	0.4	0.5
4. Proper names	0.3	0.4
5. Name of town, city, etc.	0.8	0.4
6. Beginning a direct quotation.....	*	4.0
Total	1.8	6.0
<i>Punctuation</i>		
7. Period at end of sentence	3.2	1.0
8. Question mark at end of sentence	2.0	2.0
9. Comma between words in series.....	1.9	2.0
10. Comma after words in series preceding "and"	3.3	2.0
11. Period after abbreviations	2.8	3.0
12. Comma after words in series preceding quotation	2.4	2.0
13. Apostrophe in contraction of "I will"	2.5	2.0
14. Quotation marks at beginning of quotation	3.1	3.0
15. Quotation marks at end of quotation	4.1	3.0
16. Possessive sign	8.9	6.0
Total	34.2	26.0
<i>Pronouns</i>		
17. Use of double negative	*	1.0
18. "Me" for "I" in compound subject	0.5	1.0
19. "I" for "me" as object of preposition	4.6	4.0
20. "me" for "I" in predicate following form of "be"	1.6	2.0
21. Use of nominative of relative for objective	2.5	2.0
22. Use of "which" for "that" or "who"	1.1	1.0

TABLE XVI.—*Continued*

KINDS OF ERRORS	PER CENT OF TOTAL ERRORS	
	16 Cities and Villages	14 Counties
23. Use of "their" for "them" in "themselves"	1.2	1.0
24. Use of "his" for "him" in "himself"	1.0	1.0
25. Interchange of "their" and "there" ..	1.6	2.0
26. Use of "you" for "your" preceding gerund	6.3	5.0
Total	20.4	19.0
<i>Adjectives</i>		
27. "Too" for "Two"	0.6	1.0
28. "Two" for "Too"	1.7	1.0
29. "These" for "this" and "those" for "that"	6.5	6.0
Total	8.8	19.0
<i>Verbs</i>		
30. "Was" for "were" with third person ..	* ..	1.0
31. "Came" for "come"	* ..	1.0
32. "Set" for "sit"	1.3	2.0
33. "Lay" for "lie"	2.9	3.0
34. Past participle for past tense of "eat" ..	2.8	1.0
35. Past participle for past tense of "drink" ..	* ..	1.0
36. Confusion of "can" and "may"	0.6	1.0
37. Past tense for past participle of "go" ..	3.2	2.0
38. Past tense for past participle of "eat" ..	* ..	2.0
39. "Was" for "were" second person	1.9	2.0
40. "Seen" for "saw"	* ..	1.0
41. "Known" for "knew"	* ..	1.0
42. "Ring" for "rang"	* ..	1.0
43. "Was" for "were" first person	* ..	2.0
44. "Don't" for "doesn't"	0.8	1.0
45. "Half" for "have"	0.9	1.0
Total	14.4	23.0

TABLE XVI.—*Continued*

KINDS OF ERRORS	PER CENT OF TOTAL ERRORS	
	16 Cities and Villages	14 Counties
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
46. "Easy" for "easily"	* . . .	4.0
47. "Couldn't scarcely"	4.2	3.0
48. "Hasn't got any"	5.9	3.0
49. "Write as good as her"	4.3	2.0
50. I ust to go	3.3	3.0
51. "The light shines so that we could find our way"	2.7	3.0
Total	20.4	18.0

* Omitted from report through error.

SUMMARY OF TABLE XVI

KINDS OF ERRORS	PER CENT OF TOTAL ERRORS	
	16 Cities and Villages	14 Counties
Capitals	1.8	6.0
Punctuation	34.2	26.0
Pronouns	20.4	19.0
Adjectives	8.8	8.0
Verbs	14.4	23.0
Miscellaneous	20.4	18.0
Total	100.0	100.0

tests are tests of this type. (3) Tests that determine the level at which mastery breaks down. In the preparation of such a test the skills in a process are analyzed into their elementary form, and each is measured in isolation. The Compass Diagnostic Tests by Ruch, Knight, Greene, and Studebaker are tests of this type. The interpretation of the results obtained, then, depends not

only upon the objective in the minds of supervisor and teacher, but also upon the character of the tests selected.

Interpreting the results of tests means diagnosing the difficulties of the pupils. Many tests are labelled "diagnostic." Some lend themselves more readily to diagnosis than others. Diagnosis, however, must be carried on by teacher and supervisor. Brueckner¹⁰ gives the following procedures for diagnosing pupils' difficulties:

PROCEDURES IN DIAGNOSING PUPIL DIFFICULTIES

- a. Locating the specific needs of the pupils in the class
- b. Knowing the most common pupil faults and weaknesses in processes
- c. Using suitable diagnostic procedures
- d. Preparing informal diagnostic exercises
- e. Teaching pupils to diagnose their own difficulties
- f. Adjusting the class work in such a way that the teacher has time available for diagnosis of pupil difficulties
- g. Selecting pupils in need of intensive diagnostic study
- h. Keeping records of diagnosis
- i. Filing the results of standard diagnostic tests
- j. Using graphs, etc., to interpret shortcomings
- k. Using school records to locate other causes of deficiencies
- l. Considering the pupil's personality as a factor in diagnosis
- m. Interpreting the results of the diagnostic study

It is to be noted that not all of the information needed comes from a proper interpretation of the results of tests. This interpretation assists in diagnosis, but both supervisor and teacher must use other information as well. The proper interpretation of tests, however, will aid in obtaining the following information:

1. The particular process or skill in which the pupil is deficient.
2. His ability to perform certain selected types of exercises.
3. The particular skill or ability, the lack of which or imperfect learning in which, may cause his difficulties.
4. The step at which pupil mastery breaks down.

¹⁰ L. J. Brueckner, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching of Arithmetic* (John C. Winston Co., 1930), p. 8.

5. *Providing corrective treatments.* Even though a testing program were carried through successfully to this point, it would be of little value if nothing additional were done. All that has been done has been fact-finding in character. Now instruction should be modified in the light of the facts discovered. This modification of instruction is not a part of the testing program, but must inevitably follow. It means the individualization of instruction, analyses of "break-downs" in learning, reteaching imperfectly learned skills, providing carefully developed practice materials and remedial exercises, additional measurement in order to study progress, and adjustment of work to changing needs until difficulties are overcome.

An illustration of a complete program applied to a rural-school system is taken from a report of Kansas State Teachers College.¹¹ A preliminary testing program using the New Stanford Achievement Test revealed weaknesses in reading, history, and geography. A supervisory program was carefully planned. The Gates Silent Reading Tests were administered in October. Typical comments of rural teachers concerning their reading problems follow:

THE READING SITUATION AND ITS PROBLEMS

[TEACHER A: rural school] The reading problem in my school lies with the fourth grade. These pupils have the mechanics of reading pretty well, but they do not seem to employ it in study. They have the idea that they are reading for the pronunciation of words and not for the thought. This idea makes it hard for them to get their geography lessons and other subjects that require skill to read the printed page and acquire the thought at the same time. When they are asked in class to read orally they can do this fairly well, but if they are asked questions from the material they do not seem to have much of an idea how to answer them. This does not include quite all of the fourth grade, but it is true with the majority.

I believe that if I am able to teach these pupils how to study well I will have a good fourth grade.

¹¹ Pearl G. Cruise and others, *An Extension Course in Diagnostic and Remedial Measures in Reading in Hodgeman and Ness Counties, Kansas*, Contributions to Education, No. 10 (Kansas State Teachers College, 1930).

[TEACHER B: graded school, Grade 3] The following are some problems which I encounter in my work in teaching reading. Some children read from two to five times faster than others, and so prepare their lessons in much less time. I give written work on the board for those who complete their work, and so the slow ones do not have time to get this extra work. It seems unfair for the rapid readers to do this extra work and then not receive extra credit for it, and again it is not right to give these slow readers poorer grades because they cannot cover the extra work. I would like to know just what to do in the grading of reading.

[TEACHER C: rural school] My second-grade reading class is a great problem. I think their greatest difficulty is reading by words, separately and distinctly. They are inclined to memorize the lesson. Word drills seem to make them read by words more than ever, but they help to keep them from memorizing.

These problems worry me a great deal. I have all the grades except two, so I do not have a great deal of spare time. What time I do have I try to give to these pupils.

[TEACHER D: graded school, Grades five and six] The pupils need to realize the many uses of reading. They are getting some training in manipulation of textbooks. They have not fully learned how valuable and interesting is the use of the encyclopedia and other supplementary materials which are available.

I find great differences in rate. One recent test shows a variation of from 87 words to 325 words per minute. This was in the sixth grade. What can be done to improve the eye movements, even when we know that is the cause of a low rate?

The fifth grade does not seem to know that by reading they can find answers to many questions which they are prone to ask the teacher. Concentration is very poor in many cases. Many of the pupils are good at comprehending, while others are poor. How much effort should be used in trying to level a class so that each has comprehended all that has been read?

How much should the dictionary be used for pronunciation? We are short on dictionaries. Should words be marked diacritically before the reading lesson in which they occur? Who should do this?

[TEACHER E: rural school] The children have too small a vocabulary. This makes it impossible for them to grasp the thought of the printed page fast enough to keep up with the course of study. This is the result of several causes, as I see it: (a) too small a vocabulary of English used

in the homes, (b) little reading by the children in the homes on account of too little easy and interesting reading matter at hand, (c) too many grades and classes in the school, which have deprived teachers of time to drill and develop the meaning of each new word as it appears in the text, (d) too many pupils for one dictionary.

Strange words which the pupils do not recognize come too thick and fast. This is the result of the teacher's being constrained to keep up with the course of study when the environments were such as made it impossible for them to do so. Knowledge on the part of the teacher that she would be severely blamed and criticized if she did not recommend the pupil for the next grade at the close of the term leads to promotion before the pupil is able to carry it, thus causing the child to become disinterested, disheartened, and indolent.

This last diagnosis of a school is by a teacher of some years' experience and is typical of problems of many teachers throughout the county.

TEACHERS' SUMMARY OF CHIEF DIFFICULTIES IN TEACHING READING
(Number of cases, 80)

1. Securing comprehension	26
2. Lack of time and supplementary material	25
3. Individual differences	21
4. Vocabulary and use of dictionary	19
5. Rates of reading	18
6. Oral reading and phrasing	13
7. Motivation	9
8. Word recognition and attack of new words	9
9. Securing attention and reproduction	7
10. Securing effective study habits	5
11. Phonics	3
12. Diagnostic and remedial work	1

Teachers were enrolled in extension classes directed by instructors of the Kansas State Teachers College. Schools in the counties studied were visited by the instructor. Rural school demonstrations were held and in seven schools the instructor demonstrated methods for helping solve problems in reading difficulties as the particular cases seemed to warrant. The plan of diagnostic and remedial work was as follows.

The two main objectives of the remedial reading program were:

1. Primarily to improve the reading ability of the boys and girls in the first eight grades in the schools of the two counties.
2. To provide opportunity for the training of teachers in service through demonstrations by superior teachers, the study of the principles and technique of teaching reading, presentation of helpful materials of instruction, participation in a testing program, and as much supervision as was possible.

Since the primary objective was the actual improvement of reading, the first problem attacked by these groups of interested teachers was the diagnosis of reading abilities and disabilities of each pupil. At the second meeting the teachers brought in their reading problems as they discovered them in the first weeks of school.

Problems that seemed to be common to the majority of the group were discussed in class. As far as possible, attention was given to the problems of each teacher. This was done either by discussion in the general meeting, by individual conferences, or by visits to the school.

The discussion of these problems with the teachers opened the way for the presentation of remedial methods. The teachers were very much in earnest, and in their endeavor to find solutions for specific problems utilized printed and mimeographed bulletins, books on reading, and silent-reading materials which were made available.

The specific problems that were attacked to bring about a constructive remedial program were the following:

1. A better understanding on the part of the teacher as to what the problems in the grade are. A better appreciation of how much good preparation and live presentation on the teacher's part affect each daily recitation
2. A plan to teach better study habits to boys and girls. A more efficient use of books
3. A clear, definite assignment of the advance lesson by the teacher, requiring three to five minutes. A discussion of study plan with the class. The presentation of new words during assignment

4. More use made of the blackboard for all reading classes. Limited word list kept on the blackboard for reference. Common vocabulary of each definite lesson. Questions written on the blackboard to stimulate comprehension, picking out details and following directions

5. Definite remedial measures and drills set up. A few standard lesson plans mimeographed for distribution. Introduction of purposeful seat work. Attitudes (a desire to read). Knowledge (mastery of mechanics). Skills (easy manipulations). Habits (an efficient way of work)

6. Study of supplementary reading material and presentation of new series of readers. Leisure reading period and reading table. Interest a pupil in his own progress, the progress of the group, and relations to the standards in reading

Space does not permit the inclusion of the complete records of improvement brought about by the testing program and remedial instruction. The following table shows the scores made in October and January on the Gates Silent Reading Tests: ¹²

TABLE XVII.—SCORES MADE BY TEN PUPILS IN NESS COUNTY ON THE OCTOBER AND JANUARY GATES SILENT READING TESTS (CHOSEN AT RANDOM)

PUPILS	CHRONOLOGICAL AGE	GRADE		READING TO APPRECIATE GENERAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PARAGRAPH		READING TO PREDICT THE OUTCOME OF GIVEN EVENTS		READING TO UNDERSTAND PRECISE DIRECTIONS		READING TO NOTE DETAILS	
				Test A		Test B		Test C		Test D	
		Oct.	Jan.	Oct.	Jan.	Oct.	Jan.	Oct.	Jan.	Oct.	Jan.
A ...	9-1	3.2	3.5	2.8	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.5	3.2	3.0	3.5
B ...	15-2	4.2	4.5	3.3	4.2	3.1	3.9	2.8	4.0	2.9	3.6
C ...	11-0	5.2	5.5	3.5	3.3	4.5	4.2	5.0	3.8	4.3	3.2
D ...	9-0	5.2	5.5	8.0	6.5	5.0	6.5	5.0	6.5	4.7	7.4
E ...	11-6	6.2	6.5	11.5	11.0	11.0	11.5	9.0	11.5	11.5	11.4
F ...	11-0	6.2	6.5	3.3	3.9	3.7	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.3	4.1
G ...	12-0	7.2	7.5	8.0	9.5	10.5	11.5	9.0	9.5	11.1	11.3
H ...	11-1	7.2	7.5	9.0	7.5	7.5	8.0	3.9	4.5	3.8	3.0
I ...	13-2	8.2	8.5	11.5	11.0	10.0	11.3	9.5	11.0	11.5	11.1
J ...	15-0	8.2	8.5	5.0	6.5	5.5	5.5	10.5	10.0	4.8	5.8

Pupil D is also in the fifth grade, but tests show much better scores, and in type B, type C, and type D this pupil shows an improvement of

¹² Pearl G. Cruise and others, Contributions to Education, No. 10 (Kansas State Teachers College, 1930).

more than a year in the three months of remedial work. Evidently this pupil has practiced better methods of study.

Pupil E shows marked ability in all types of reading. It seems that this pupil should be reclassified and placed in an advanced grade as his ability warrants. The ordinary sixth-grade curriculum cannot be sufficiently enriched to keep him working at his highest level. He may develop lazy habits.

Pupil F is as far below standard as pupil E is above, although both have a chronological age of eleven years. Pupils with such a wide range of reading abilities may be in the same class. It is a serious problem of individual differences. This pupil needs special consideration.

Pupil G is a good student, as shown by the October tests. Three months of concentrated effort have made a great improvement in type A and type B.

Pupil H has no difficulty in reading to appreciate the general significance of the paragraph (type A) predicting the outcome of given events, but his ability to understand precise directions (type C) and note details (type D) is very poor. These seem to be the types of reading the pupil should work to improve.

Pupil I shows a superior reading achievement in October. Reading to predict the outcome of given events (type B) and reading to understand precise directions (type C) seem to be hardest. It seems the pupil realized this as diagnosed by the tests, and worked to improve these. The January tests show an advancement of more than a year in reading grade.

Pupil J shows exceedingly poor reading ability in type A, type B, and type D. He has achieved considerable in the three months of concentrated effort, but he is still far below grade. Reading to understand precise directions (type C) shows marked ability in October and January, which is interpreted as two years above grade.

A consistent gain during the three months period was shown in every grade in both counties, the progress ranging from 100 per cent of the standard progress to 593 per cent in the seventh grades of Ness county.

Summary. Educational tests are valuable agencies of supervision when properly used. This proper use assumes the setting up of objectives and the development of a favorable attitude toward standardized tests on the part of the teacher. Tests should be carefully selected to serve the purposes of the testing program. The results should be adequately tabulated and represented

graphically. The interpretation of the results of a testing program furnishes the basis for redirected procedures in teaching, supervision, and administration.

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CHAPTER VII

SUPERVISORY VISITS TO THE CLASSROOM

The classroom is the crucible for the amalgamation of educational philosophy and practice. It is here that the curriculum is tried out; it is here that the teacher's personality, training, and experience are put to the acid test; it is here also that the supervisor proves potent or impotent in refining the technique of teaching.

Although there is no single set of rules that are invariably right for classroom visiting, in general it may be said that the most uniform procedure is for the supervisor to tap gently on the door, immediately to open it and enter unobtrusively, smiling or nodding a greeting to teacher and pupils, and taking a seat somewhere in the rear of the room. Some supervisors feel that it is not always necessary to greet teachers and pupils, since the greeting may sometimes interrupt thought processes.

Supervisory problems in visiting classrooms. It is the purpose of the supervisor to interrupt the pupils' work as little as possible, to become a part of the room before attempting any active participation in the classroom activities, and to gain a general idea of what the teacher is trying to do. But this behavior does not necessarily mean that the supervisor has no definite plans in mind. For unless he is the kind of school officer who merely visits and observes, or the kind who visits solely for purposes of inspection or criticism, he must do some careful thinking and planning before visiting a teacher's classroom. Here are some of the problems that he must decide:

1. Is it desirable for a particular supervisory visit to have its place in a series of visits, that is, to be part of a larger plan?

2. Is it best for the supervisor to make special preparation for the observation of one subject or of one type of work and then limit his observation for the time being to that plan of instructional activity?

3. Shall the supervisor take notes as he observes? If so, of what shall these notes consist?

4. To what extent should the supervisor demonstrate the suggested improvements? Should he demonstrate what he believes the teacher needs, or what the teacher asks to have demonstrated?

5. Is it well for the supervisor to visit beginning teachers at once or wait until these beginners have become accustomed to their work?

6. With zealous, well trained, and competent teachers, may not supervisory assistance be provided chiefly in response to requests from the teachers themselves?

7. Shall teachers be told when to expect the supervisor's visit?

8. Shall the supervisor through questions encourage self-criticism by the teacher before he himself criticizes or suggests?

9. Should teachers be encouraged to keep notes and ask questions about difficulties that do not present themselves during the supervisory visit? For example:

a. How may better home work be secured?

b. How may bright pupils be kept busy and slow pupils up to standard?

c. How may problem-solving lessons be successfully inaugurated?

10. What check list of standards or principles may best be used to determine the efficiency of instruction?

These are really only a few of the problems that are always present to complicate the supervisor's visiting technique.

Supervisors tell what they do. Most of the foregoing problems are touched upon in the following excerpts from the annual reports of a group of county supervisors in Maryland. The supervisor who is first quoted visits one-teacher and two-teacher schools. She tells of the number of schools visited per day, her purpose for and method of taking notes, her reasons for teaching classes of children, and her plan for visiting.

Usually three schools were visited in one day. This was found more satisfactory than a greater number of visits because I could have the recesses and the noon hour for conferences with the teacher and still not miss seeing the work of some of the grades which was going on during

the period of travel from school to school. If all grades were observed, more satisfaction ensued. Often something cropped up in one grade or another that was wholly unexpected and that needed immediate attention.

For memoranda of visits and convenience in notetaking, I carry a looseleaf notebook with alphabetical index. Following each teacher's name is a complete list of visits, with dates on which the visits occurred, and a criticism of the work observed. For two years past no duplicate has been left with the teacher, but at the conference during each visit, the teacher is shown what is written in the book. A frank discussion of the value of the work observed follows. Many times I have taught a lesson or lessons to demonstrate some point under discussion. A few of the reasons for this demonstration work in the classrooms are taken at random from my notebook as follows:

1. To show method of teaching pronunciation and meaning of unfamiliar words in reading
2. To show how seatwork can grow naturally out of a lesson and become a complementary part of it
3. To show next step in phonics; the blending of known elements to make more words
4. To show a different kind of review lesson
5. To show use of maps in fourth-grade history
6. To show better method of attacking problems in arithmetic
7. To show use of references in upper-grade geography
8. To show how to start combinations in subtraction for first grade
9. To show different ways of summarizing a history lesson for fifth grade
10. To show a sixth grade how to make an outline for an oral story and to reproduce the story from outline

Many more reasons could be recounted from almost daily teaching, if it were expedient to do so.

The major part of the visits early in the school year were made to beginning teachers, those new to the county, or those changing their positions this year. These teachers took their place in a more regular routine of visits as they showed themselves more capable of handling their situations independently.

Two rounds of visits, after test results were tabulated, were devoted to a special study of reading classes to determine, if possible, what were the special needs of these classes. After this, reading was not specially emphasized by the supervisor in the classroom, unless the teacher particularly requested it. The emphasis on reading was taken care of in the teachers' meetings.

The supervisor next quoted visits town and village schools. She tells of the average number and length of her visits, and of her way of working with beginning teachers.

My policy of visiting may be stated briefly. I have visited each teacher on an average of four times this year, spending a minimum of an hour and a half at each visit. I feel that a visit must be at least long enough to give constructive criticism. This means that the weakest teachers have been seen five, six, or more times and a few of the strongest ones only two or three times. I spend the entire day at a school as a general thing and pay a supervisory visit to three teachers. Before leaving, however, I usually manage to get in each of the other rooms and look around or chat a few minutes with the teachers so that I keep in touch with the work they are doing. With this plan I see each teacher every month. I have demonstrated at least one lesson for practically every one of my new teachers, holding a detailed discussion of the lesson afterward with the teacher. I have tried also to manage to see at least one big special program that each school has held this year.

In our final questionnaire, a number of teachers suggested that they could have been helped more if I had taught for them. My policy this year has been to teach where I was needed. I shall try to do more demonstration work next year, particularly in the studies upon which our interests are centered. I shall plan also to have a visiting day for the teachers who are in need of it. I believe it will bring results.

Another supervisor who visits schools in cities, towns, and villages believes that there are advantages in planning each visit as part of a larger scheme for visiting. She also thinks that teachers should sometimes be notified in advance of a supervisor's visit. She says:

This year, since my buildings were close together and the problem of time for travel eliminated, I concentrated on visiting for one purpose. I saw reading lessons taught in the third and fourth grades; I observed fifth-grade history, sixth-grade history, and junior high classes in geography and history; I observed language lessons taught in first and second grades. I did more of this type of visiting this year than before and believe it has these advantages:

1. The supervisor is better prepared to give more valuable suggestions to the teachers in the matter of reference books and good points observed in other classrooms.

2. It gives the supervisor an opportunity to do more reading, to become quite familiar with subject matter likely to be dealt with.
3. It offers an opportunity for comparing the abilities of classes and the strengths of teachers because the material being handled is comparable.
4. For some of the visits teachers were notified of the day I would be in the building. This offers an opportunity for some teachers to demonstrate their best work.

The notes of the next supervisor show that she believes in outlining the professional equipment she is stressing for each classroom.

In my visits to the rural schools I have been making a persistent effort to have each classroom show the following:

- Daily program posted
- Goals for room posted
- Alphabet in script, color chart, number chart, posted in primary room
- Posters showing materials relative to topics studied in history and geography
- Plan book open on desk; seat work carefully planned
- Pupils' notebooks showing varied summaries
- Pupils' record chart of scores made in weekly tests in reading and arithmetic
- Graded writing scale formed by use of samples of pupils' handwriting graded A B C D E
- Best seat-work papers posted
- Reading table in use in library corner
- Books catalogued in library
- Assignments definite and clear
- Some type of check upon all seatwork
- Sand table or evidences of other activities in progress.

The supervisor next quoted visits town and village schools. Besides discussing various procedures for classroom visiting, she gives criteria that determine a supervisor's helpfulness in the classroom.

There are some very definite things that determine the teacher's and the class's acceptance of a supervisor, her opinions, and suggestions. She must have a sympathetic understanding of what is happening; she must be sincere and frank in her criticisms; her suggestions must reveal an understanding of the content of the subject, how it was approached

and studied by the class, the trend the lesson is taking, and the level of understanding in the class.

I endeavored to see each teacher at least every six weeks, and to tie up and unify the conferences following the observed teaching or class procedure with previous conferences—either individual classroom conferences or group conferences. I attempted to base criticisms on good principles of teaching, thus building up for the teacher a practical knowledge of the meaning of education.

In the visits to the classroom I have often taught in the presence of the teacher, the purpose being to show some essential phase of procedure which either she neglected or did not understand. This lesson most often followed a discussion of the point or points to be demonstrated, and was in turn followed by a critique alone with the teacher, the children being given seatwork or sent from the room.

Sometimes I assigned the teacher a type of lesson to teach, giving her a week or so to practice on the procedure before teaching it in the presence of the supervisor.

Sometimes I made an appointment with the teacher to return on a certain day, at which time I would teach a specified lesson. The teacher as well as the supervisor was to plan this lesson. The discussion of the two plans was to be a part of the critique following the teaching of the lesson. Frequently other teachers in the same school were invited to see the demonstration and to take part in the critique.

Often a teacher whose lesson has fallen below standard is made more comfortable by being allowed to criticize her own teaching. This procedure is also used where a teacher is prone to excuse all her shortcomings, or feels that she is somewhat superior to her fellows.

Supervisory participation in the lesson. It is evident from the above testimony that these supervisors are *teachers as well as supervisors*. They have not lost their intimate contact with children. They do not ask teachers to do something that they themselves cannot do or are not willing to do.

Some writers in the field of supervision express the opinion that it is a bad procedure for the supervisor ever to "take the lesson." A recent writer¹ argues that such an interruption embarrasses rather than helps a teacher, that it belittles her before the pupils. He draws the following analogy:

¹ George C. Kyte, *How To Supervise* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930), p. 159.

If the superintendent of schools interrupted a supervisor conducting a teachers' meeting to take charge or suggest that the latter individual take a new tack, because the former considered the meeting was accomplishing nothing, the supervisor would feel that he had been discredited professionally or insulted. The teacher is just as much a sensitive human being as the supervisor, and is justified in resenting the same type of interference in the classroom. . . . If the supervisor feels that he can help the teacher through demonstration teaching, arrangements should be made to do so at some other and more appropriate time.

Not all supervisors would agree with the opinions here expressed. Competent supervisors are usually delighted if their superintendents know enough about the subject under discussion at a teachers' meeting, or are interested enough, to participate, whether by interruption or redirection of the discussion. One can, however, agree in general with Kyte's point of view and yet find many occasions for disagreement. It is the spirit of the interruption or redirection that really matters. For, whether or not the supervisor can successfully participate in the lesson he is observing, depends on the relations previously established between teacher and supervisor, on the needs of the particular teacher, on the supervisor's ability to direct the lesson to more fruitful ends, and on the supervisor's manner of coming in on the lesson. Of course any reflection on the teacher's work must be avoided. No supervisor should ever break into a lesson in such a way as to make the pupils conscious that their teacher is using a faulty technique. As one supervisor expressed it, "Such a situation is as unethical as the criticism of one parent by the other in the presence of the child."

Specific ways in which the supervisor helps the teacher. There are many ways in which a supervisor may build up the technique of the teacher. Sometimes she will ask the teacher for permission to ask the pupils a question and thus give guidance to the lesson and at the same time convey a helpful hint to the teacher. Sometimes when a teacher is "spoiling" a poem for the class or is failing to arouse much interest or appreciation for a fine story, such as Daudet's "Last Lesson," a supervisor may unob-

trusively sit down with the children and by contributing as a member of the class reshape the lesson or bring out values that are unsuspected by teachers, many of whom are lacking in literary appreciation.

A supervisor, dissatisfied with the results in spelling in the schools under his direction, had succeeded through demonstration and discussion at teachers' meetings in establishing good procedures for teaching spelling throughout his supervisory unit. But there are, unfortunately, in rural schools many teachers of whom it may be said that their enthusiasm and technique are far in advance of their knowledge and information. Visiting such a teacher in a one-teacher school the supervisor observed a spelling lesson taught according to an acceptable procedure. Some of the words were chosen from the geography and history lessons; the children had studied only the words they did not know how to spell; the principle of multiple response—see, hear, pronounce, and write—had been kept in mind; the words were used in sentences. One of the words was *oasis*. A child gave the sentence, "The cow ate the oasis." It was accepted by class and teacher. At this point the supervisor coming forward said, "How many of you like John's sentence?" All hands were raised.

SUPERVISOR: What is an oasis, John?

JOHN: An oasis means grass and water in a desert.

SUPERVISOR: Now repeat your sentence.

JOHN: The cow ate the oasis.

SUPERVISOR: Now, how many of you like John's sentence?

MARY: I don't like it.

SUPERVISOR: Why don't you like John's sentence, Mary?

MARY: Because there are no cows in the desert.

SUPERVISOR: Mary is right. There are no cows in the desert.

Even if we took a cow into the desert she might eat some grass, but she could not *eat an oasis*. John's sentence is not good because it is not a statement that could be true.

The teacher then went on with the spelling lesson. But both teacher and children had been helped by the supervisor. They

were helped while the need was "warm," not after it was "cold." Nor was the teacher in any way discredited in the eyes of the class.

Another supervisor listening in on a fifth-grade geography lesson, when the pupils were working out a problem in connection with their study of Africa, noted that the children repeatedly confused the terms "lower" and "upper," as applied to Egypt, because of the relation of the map to the lower and upper edges of the page. For example, northern Egypt was repeatedly called "Upper Egypt," while the section near Sudan was called "Lower Egypt." At a point when an interruption would not interfere with the thinking being done in connection with the problem under consideration, the supervisor said to the teacher, "Do you mind if I work with the children for a few moments?" Upon being welcomed as a member of the group, he gave a simple explanation followed by a drill in which the children pointed out the sections of the "upper and lower" water courses. In a conference after the lesson, the supervisor and teacher agreed that one of the important mistakes made by children of both earlier and later grades is the lack of recognition of the slope of land from the drainage pattern. The teacher said that henceforth she would be very careful to have children respond to the symbols on the map rather than to the edges of the page.

Many teachers bear witness to the fact that children enjoy such contacts with the supervisor as those here mentioned, and that they themselves regard these interruptions as helpful.

There are times when the supervisor can find out what children in a particular class need only by teaching those children. A supervisor who observed a group of second-grade children reading orally noted that the reading was poor and that the apparent need seemed to be more work on words. But when the supervisor "took the class" to demonstrate a better procedure he found that the children had not even read the lesson silently; they were meeting the unfamiliar new words for the first time in *oral* reading rather than in *silent* reading.

Supervisory checks on the practice of "breaking in" on the recitation. There are undoubtedly occasions when more harm than good is done by supervisory interruption. For the benefit of an inexperienced county supervisor a state supervisor² formulated the following questions as a help in determining when it is justifiable to "break in" on the lesson.

1. Did the teacher need help immediately? Were things so bad that they had to be pulled together? Were children being harmed because incorrect statements or bad habits were being taught?

2. Did you have sufficient reason for believing that the teacher could get your help better through immediate demonstration than through a later conference? Had you given her the help in previous conferences? Had she failed to profit by it? Had she requested that you show her at the time how to improve her procedures? Had previous supervisory experience led you to know that "breaking in" is the best way to work with that particular teacher?

3. Were you sure that what you did improved the teaching and gave needed help or did it merely patch up? Were you able to sense the main trouble and set the teacher right? Did your help substitute a stronger method of reaching the children or did it improve a few details of a poor method? Did your "breaking in" help the children or the teacher? It can do both. It can do neither.

4. In the conference, did you discuss the significance of the help you gave when you "broke in"? Did you build up an understanding of reasons and principles to guide the teacher in future lessons?

The foregoing illustrations have centered on the question of whether or not the supervisor can successfully participate in the lesson she is observing. That is a different matter from the question of teaching lessons for teachers at their own requests. The point of view as expressed by an experienced supervisor after a year's work in a new field makes clear the nature of a fine educational philosophy brought to bear on this latter question:

At the risk of being misunderstood, I have consistently refused to teach for any teacher without first observing the teacher's own ability *to do the thing requested*. I believe that demonstration should be based solely

² M. Theresa Wiedefeld, State Supervisor of Elementary Schools in Maryland.

upon evident need and I do not believe that a teacher can state her own needs so well as she can demonstrate them. Further, my conception of supervision does not permit an outright imitation of teaching to please the supervisor. This tendency to do "just as you wish it done" was unmistakably in evidence and was to be discouraged. I gave especially prepared demonstration lessons for inexperienced normal graduates. Much incidental teaching has been done for the majority of teachers, but only after a special weakness has been detected during a regular recitation period.

The deadening inclination of these same teachers to rest all matters requiring an exercise of their judgment upon the personal opinion of the supervisor has been discouraged to the extent that one teacher good-humoredly remarked to a fellow-teacher in my presence, "It is no use to ask her what *she* thinks. She wouldn't tell you to save your life." This does not mean that requests for information have been ignored. They have not, but inquirers have been prodded to think for themselves when it seemed to their advantage to do so.

A very few good teachers have undoubtedly asked for demonstrations and other unnecessary helps as a test of the supervisor. These have failed to establish the sincerity of their requests and have been ignored.

Means of gathering factual data to meet individual needs. The rural supervisor's work with individual teachers is educationally effective and economically serviceable to the extent that he is able to discover the needs of his teachers and to meet those needs. For discovering the needs of teachers there are certain means or techniques which the supervisor employs:

1. Observation of pupil activities
2. Study of pupil performances on tests and examinations
3. Observation and analysis of teaching
4. Study of teacher difficulties (lesson plans, assignments, etc.)
5. Check lists

On the basis of known facts discovered by such techniques as the foregoing, the supervisor confers with his teachers in an endeavor to change and modify existing practice.

Observation of classroom activities may be both subjective and objective. Subjective estimates cover such factors as:

- The general appearance of the room
- The general attitude of pupils and teachers toward work

The preparation of pupils and of teachers for the day's lessons
 The spirit of coöperation
 The change made in pupils in respect to knowledge, skills, and attitudes

1. *Objective estimates of classroom activities.* In an effort to find a worthy tool for evaluating work in the classroom a group of rural supervisors and teachers agreed upon the following check list. Through its use each teacher is provided with a means of appraising her own teaching and of analyzing her work. It also points to ways and means by which a teacher can put her work on a higher plane. The wise supervisor realizes that to superimpose high ideals and standards is of little value, but when teachers themselves recognize the worth of such ideals and standards, these standards really function and the teachers become professionally conscious. In other words, when teachers understand the real purpose of supervision they are glad to coöperate in an effort to analyze work at higher levels.

A TEACHER'S CHECK LIST FOR EVALUATING HER WORK

1. *Teacher's preparation for day's work*
 1. Daily plan
 - a. Recitation indicated $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Topic} \\ \text{Hint of method} \end{array} \right.$
 - b. Type of seatwork indicated
 2. Assignments
 - a. Placed on board before class session
 - b. Variety of assignments
 - As to subjects
 - As to type
 - c. Supplementary list, "Things to Do"
 - On blackboard
 - On work table
 3. Material in readiness
 - a. Paper in place convenient to pupils
 - b. Chalk and erasers at boards
 - c. Box of sharpened pencils to use in emergency

- d. Pictures to use as illustrations in history, geography, and nature study
- e. Reference material for content subjects
- f. Alphabet—capital and small letters

II. *Appearance of room*

1. Good housekeeping—cleanliness and orderliness
 - a. Clean blackboards
 - b. Work neatly placed on blackboards
 - c. Floor free of crumbs and scraps of paper
 - d. Room about stove free from debris
 - e. Teacher's desk orderly
 - f. Pupils' desks clean—books placed inside in orderly way
 - g. In so far as possible, an individual hook assigned to each pupil for his coat and hat
2. Posting of work in classroom
 - A. Records of work
 - a. Teacher's schedule posted in convenient place for visitors to see
 - b. Samples of pupils' work in *writing, arithmetic, spelling, and reading seatwork*
 - c. Records of poems, stories, and songs taught this year
 - d. Records of books read by class (poster)
 - e. Records of books read by individual pupils
 - f. Grammatical forms for drill posted
 - g. List of troublesome words for pronunciation drill
 - h. List of history topics posted on blackboard or chart
 - i. Phonetic charts (Grade 1)
 - j. Record of silent-reading tests (Grades 2, 3, 4)
 - k. Vocabulary list—booklet, or chart
 - l. Bulletin board for announcements
 - B. Illustrative material (only that pertinent to the work in hand should be in evidence)
 - a. Grouped according to subjects—a geography corner, a history corner, a health corner
 - b. Book announcement, illustration, title of book, and leading question
 - c. Collection of pictures by famous artists

III. *Teaching*

1. Content subjects
 - a. Steps in lesson procedure
 - b. Use of illustrative and reference material, of map and globe

- c. Appearance of pupils' notebooks
 - d. Use of sand table, posters, lecture, dramatization, booklets, to unify the work under a topic
2. Reading
- B. Blackboard work (Grade 1 or Grade 2)
 - a. Phraseology of blackboard different from that of book
 - b. Many sentences read in each board lesson
 - c. Sequence of thought in blackboard lessons
 - d. New words used many times in different associations
 - e. Pupils conscious of new words in lesson
 - f. Old words reviewed by use in the sentences of to-day's lesson
 - g. Participation by every child
 - B. Book work
 - a. Justification of procedure used—ability of class, difficulty of material
 - b. Consciousness on the part of the pupils of good standards.
 - 1. Oral reading
 - (a) Good posture
 - (b) Correct position of book
 - (c) Clear enunciation
 - (d) Accuracy in calling words
 - (e) Ease and fluency
 - (f) Power to interpret story to listeners through the reliving of the story by the reader
 - 2. Silent reading
 - (a) Interpretation of author's thought
 - (b) Power to organize ideas for recall
 - (c) Power to get thought of printed page rapidly enough to prevent lip movement
 - c. Assignments adapted to type of material contained in the lesson
3. Composition
- a. Varied types of lessons
(Checked from teacher's plan book)
 - b. Consciousness of good standards on part of pupils
 - 1. Oral composition
 - (a) Good sentence structure
 - (b) Events in proper order
 - (c) Sentences related to topic
 - (d) Interesting words used
 - (e) Truth emphasized

- (f) Conversational tone of voice
- (g) Good posture
- 4. Arithmetic
 - a. Steps in lesson procedure—drill work related to the teaching lesson
 - b. Individual difficulties noted and used as basis for drill
 - c. Arithmetical language used by teacher and pupils
 - d. Various types of exercises included in the assignment. The material used should represent that included in the teaching lesson preceding the seatwork period
- 5. Spelling
 - a. Words selected from work of day
 - b. Various types of spelling lessons used (checked from teacher's plan book)
 - c. Procedure used that emphasizes individual difficulties of words, good study habits, and chance to check writing of word by pupils
 - d. Words taught should be used as a basis for word building or use in phrases
- 6. Writing
 - a. Emphasize points discussed at meetings of last year
 - 1. Capital and loop letters almost touching line above
 - 2. Small letters uniform in size and about one-half as tall as loop letters
 - 3. Endings swing upward
 - 4. Writing on the line
- 7. Literature and music
Emphasis upon the thought of poem or song, good enunciation, soft tones, and correct pronunciation

Objective estimates for evaluating classroom activities are much more reliable and definite than subjective estimates, although what often passes for "objective data" is really "subjective" and needs to be carefully scrutinized. To a certain extent the foregoing check list is objective, although in respect to many of the items it is highly subjective. However, it is one device by which the supervisor can make a much more complete and accurate estimate regarding a teacher's work than can be secured by a general impression method based on vague and indefinite reactions. The supervisor may find it advantageous to study a

single item at a time; for example, the variety of assignments as to subject and type, or the appearance of pupils' notebooks. He may prefer to select a wider range for study.³

A supervisor who was studying oral reading in the primary grades of his small schools noted that frequently every pupil in a class had practice in oral reading during every reading-lesson period, but that the practice was bad because the attention of the individual children was not focused on their particular difficulties. In one school the six children composing the third-grade class read aloud in response to good questions asked by the teacher. According to the supervisor's notes, which were discussed with the teacher and left with her, this is what happened:

Diagnosis of Reading Difficulties	What Might Be Done
1. John and May (word readers). Knew words. John reads fast; May, slow, but choppy—words not well joined. Their bad reading is worse than no reading at all.	Flash exercises with variety of phrases. Teacher sometimes read aloud to set standard. In response to a question, let child read silently the sentences that answer, before reading aloud. Get them "ready" to read aloud. Never permit an exception to the law of <i>readiness</i> .
2. Marian (fluent reader). Very little expression with no imagination or emotion. Read three times—had practice but no real help. Teacher said, "Feel what you read" and "Read with expression," but it was ineffective.	Contrast her monotonous reading voice with her speaking voice. Make her conscious of audience. Make her conscious of the <i>meaning</i> of what she reads.

³ *Scientific Method in Supervision, Second Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1929, Ch. xii. Contains an excellent statement of the basis for developing a supervisory check list by means of which the supervisor can make reliable analysis of the supervisory needs of a teacher of reading.

The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930, Ch. vii. Contains a detailed check list for making an analysis of the supervisory needs of a teacher of arithmetic.

Diagnosis of Reading Difficulties	What Might Be Done
3. James and Elsie (lack word control). They can answer thought questions.	Provide easy books for oral reading. Give phonic practice. Drill on difficulties in advance.
4. Elizabeth (stammers). Has no trouble in getting the thought.	Work for freedom and self-confidence. Don't hurry her. Encourage her to believe she can overcome the defect. Teach her to inhale properly before she tries to talk.

2. *Preparation of pupils and teachers.* In addition to certain items on the foregoing teachers' check list (pages 204-207) that can be obtained on an objective basis during classroom visits, the supervisor may be interested in securing concrete objective data at one time or another on such factors as the following:

Questions and Responses

Number of questions asked by teacher—factual and reasoning
 Number of pupils who made correct and number who made incorrect responses to questions or directions
 Number of questions asked by pupils or number of voluntary contributions by pupils
 Number of unanswered questions
 Number and per cent of pupils who participated in the lesson
 The average length of pupil responses
 Number of pupil responses less than $\frac{1}{4}$ minute in length
 Number of pupil responses that exceeded one minute
 Number of pupils who appeared inattentive

Economy of Time

Time spent by teacher in assigning lessons or reports
 Time spent by teacher in directed study
 Time spent by teacher in recitations or discussions
 Time spent in distributing material and collecting papers
 Time spent in allowing rapid workers to wait for slower pupils

Accomplishment of Pupils

How many poems does each pupil know?

How many examples in addition, 4 numerals wide and 3 high, can each pupil do in 5 minutes?

How many words can pupils spell when they go to high school?

How many first-grade children can read from a new and strange primer at the end of ten months?

How many pupils are overage? Why are they overage?

How well does each pupil perform on various standardized tests?

In securing objective evidence of a teaching situation, the supervisor collects such data as the age, grade, and progress of pupils; their attendance and test records; and their growth under instruction. All of this he compiles for the purpose of giving insight into the conditions that affect learning. These data are worthless unless he uses them to clarify the teacher's view of her problem.

3. *Checking the attention of pupils.* Suppose the supervisor is studying the amount of inattention during the lesson period, and finds that a large proportion of the class is not paying attention at different intervals throughout the period.⁴ In conference supervisor and teacher will endeavor to find the causes of such an evident lack of interest on the part of the pupils and will decide upon means of remedying the situation. Perhaps the supervisor observed that during the first five minutes of the lesson, when the procedure was that of question and answer, six children in a class of fifteen were not attentive; but, on the contrary, that during the second five minutes of the lesson, when the teacher was talking and using illustrative material, all of the fifteen were attentive. "What happens with the attention of your pupils?" the supervisor asks, "You did not keep their attention at first, but you did during the second part of the lesson."

⁴ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (University of Chicago Press, 1926), p. 103.

Long⁵ has shown that pupils are inattentive because of lack of preparation on the part of the teacher, faulty procedures in teaching, faulty techniques, the use of too difficult material, and similar factors.

4. *Checking the responses of pupils.* Some supervisors find the following device useful for checking on children's oral response to a teacher:

$\begin{array}{cc} + & + \\ + & + \\ \text{A} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} - \\ - \\ \text{B} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \text{C} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} + \\ \text{D} \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{c} - \\ - \\ \text{E} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{F} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} + \\ \text{G} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{cc} - & - \\ - & - \\ + \\ \text{H} \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{c} - \\ + \\ \text{I} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \text{J} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{cc} + & + \\ - \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{L} \end{array}$

The squares = pupils, + = good response, — = poor response, 0 = no response.

The chart shows also the number of pupils participating. Sometimes all participate, but the frequency does not mean high quality. It is advantageous for this state of affairs to be revealed to the teacher. The chart can also be used with such a child as "Pupil H" who talks much before he thinks.

The desirability of using economical, reliable, and effective means for gathering factual data cannot be too strongly emphasized. Depending upon his purpose, the rural supervisor may use in various ways the suggestions and procedures that have been briefly described here. In each of two recent national year-

⁵ Wilbur E. Long, "Pupil Attention in Arithmetic," *School of Education Journal* (University of Pittsburgh), Vol. 3, November-December, 1927, pp. 27-29, 32-33.

books ⁶, ⁷ there are several studies in general and certain chapters in particular in which he will find many valuable suggestions for objective method in the work of supervision as opposed to mere subjective impressions.

It is of prime importance to remember, however, that the gathering of factual data is only a means to an end. Facts must be used as a basis for reflective thinking. But reflective thought alone will not provide enough impetus for enthusiastic activity. There must be an emotional urge. Matthew Arnold once said, "Intellect is a mere speck afloat on the wave of emotion." Besides impersonal and objective supervision there must be personal and subjective supervision. The first calls for fine mechanism; the latter calls for fine artistry. It is easier to become proficient in the first than in the second. And yet supervision that is warm, personal, and friendly creates enthusiasm, brings eagerness of response, and gives savor to work.

Undoubtedly supervisors need training in scientific method; but they should use long detailed records only occasionally. It is possible for them to spend so much time in recording the number of children who responded that they lose sight of the rich experience which those children are receiving.

Supervisory visits may or may not be prearranged. There is no way of knowing conclusively what are the right answers to the ten problems stated at the beginning of this chapter. Shall the visits of the supervisor be prearranged with the teacher? Sometimes? Yes. Often? Perhaps. Always? No.

If the supervisor is a competent and sympathetic leader whose teachers feel that he expects them to do their best, that he is ready to help them improve their teaching, and that he has faith in their ability to improve their teaching—in other words,

⁶ *Scientific Method in Supervision*, Second Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1929.

⁷ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930.

if the spirit and the confidence are what they should be—then he is welcomed as a “member of the family” by both teacher and pupils. He can come when he will, unannounced, sit or stand where he pleases, and the fact that he is in the room will not materially change things except, as one teacher expressed it, that his presence is a “stimulating force.” Furthermore, if the supervisor is an “understanding” person, teachers will often ask him to come in order that he may help them to do better something that they feel themselves poorly prepared to do. This is as it should be. It indicates an attitude that is receptive to the best that supervision has to offer—an attitude that is directly opposed to the old idea of supervisory surveillance. Unfortunately, many teachers do not recognize their own problems and failures, so that, often, the supervisor has to develop on the part of the teacher an awareness of something that is poor, a dissatisfaction with what is going on. This dissatisfaction is a prime requisite to growth.

If a supervisor deserves the reputation of being an “understanding supervisor” it means he knows that at times even a strong teacher does a poor piece of teaching; that a teacher can teach certain subjects exceedingly well and all but fail with other subjects; that the response of any particular group of children to a teacher’s effort is conditioned by the intellectual level of the group, by environmental conditions, and by the past school experiences of the children. He recognizes also that the teacher knows the characteristics of the children in her room better than any supervisor can possibly know them.

It is well to give teachers an opportunity of showing their best teaching, so, sometimes, the supervisor informs a teacher in advance of his coming. “You know we are emphasizing questions that will lead pupils to describe or explain, rather than questions that will require only a memory of facts,” the supervisor may say to a teacher. “I am going to look for that type of question when I come to you next Thursday.” He thus sets a definite assignment for the teacher and for himself. This makes for

economy in supervision. He may say to the principal of a school, "When I come to your school next Tuesday, I want to see each of your teachers teach a reading lesson. Afterwards I will confer with all of the teachers together." This is an example of specific supervision definitely prepared for by the teachers and by the supervisor, thus economizing time and effort.

Distribution of the supervisor's time. How may the supervisor distribute his visits among the teachers in order that all receive adequate assistance? Here are statements of three county supervisors who have given considerable thought to this question.

A supervisor who has 66 teachers under her direction favors the zone plan:

By using the zone system I can make my supervision more systematic. Each teacher knows when I will be at her school, and I know the approximate amount of time I can give to each teacher. Supervisors expect teachers to follow a schedule, and we are just as obligated to work on a schedule as they are. At the beginning of the year I zone my part of the county, plan what I mean to do that year, and budget my time. The teachers are made aware of my plans and they know that each supervisory visit tends either toward or from a zone group meeting. Sometimes I have a group meeting preceding my zone visits instead of at the end of the visits. The needs of the teachers in a particular zone determine, of course, the program for my meetings. Each teacher is visited each month. I have three zones in my supervisory unit. It requires a week for me to visit the teachers in any one of my zones; or three weeks to visit all my teachers. I arrange that each month there shall be one week in which there are no timed visits, and in that week I visit those teachers who need a second visit in that month.

A supervisor of fifty teachers thus discusses the question:

I have divided my teachers into three groups—superior teachers, fairly good teachers, and poor teachers. By poor teachers, I mean those weak in discipline, those weak in subject matter, those weak in method, and those who are unenthusiastic. My tendency has been to spend much time with my superior teachers because they are the ones with whom I plan demonstration meetings; and much time with my poor teachers. I try to see each teacher once a month. During the first week of school my visits were short, none of them, however, shorter than fifteen minutes;

the majority of them were thirty minutes in length. We discussed such things as new books, daily programs, classification of children. During the second week my visits were longer, varying from one to two hours in length. My general plan throughout the county is to analyze lessons with my teachers.

A county supervisor who has under her direction 130 teachers scattered over 500 square miles, and housed in 63 different buildings makes this comprehensive analysis of her problem:

There are rural teachers, village teachers, and town teachers. There are teachers having all grades to teach, teachers having one grade, two, three, and four. There are beginners and poor teachers and teachers who can never change their ways. There are teachers who must be closely followed and shown many times; there are teachers who are progressing with every opportunity; and there are a few superior teachers. There are teachers who are not conscientious towards their work and teachers who resent constructive criticism and suggestion.

All of these teachers need to be handled as a *whole*. There are ideas, improvements, special and important suggestions which are for every school, for every teacher and every child; and so meetings for all of the teachers must be held at the county seat. It is impossible to hold many such meetings; it costs the teachers a great deal; and many of the roads are hard to travel except during long periods of dry weather.

Sectional or group meetings are held in various parts of the county for the convenience of the teachers; but they seldom satisfy from the point of view of the supervisor, as one small group of teachers of twelve or fifteen may contain teachers having different needs, and representing various types of experience and professional growth.

Small group conferences and conferences with individual teachers are held at the office and at schools, with those teachers who live and teach near a car line. Such conferences are impossible to the vast majority of the teachers; they can't get to the office, and cannot stay at their schools after school hours because of a conflicting train or bus schedule, or because of the long and lonely drive which they must take to get home. The best that can be done is to talk with the teacher for a short time during school hours or at the recess periods. It is often necessary to follow such a hurried conference by a letter, stating again the purposes of the help given and setting forth definite suggestions for the teacher to follow.

Various ways have been suggested for dividing up the work so that

each section of the county and each group of teachers might get an equal amount of time and attention:

Plan I—Divide the county into districts and concentrate intensively for a stated period of time upon each district. Such a plan will not accomplish the aims intended. The sections scheduled for the winter months can't be visited; the sections left until last receive their help too late; the sections helped early have become discouraged and need further stimulation before the year is half over.

Plan II—Visit only the beginners and weak teachers and reach the others through meetings. Such a plan is poor. The strength of a county's teaching force is measured by the majority of its teachers, by the growth of its strong teachers. Many of the weak teachers become discouraged and leave. They will not be a part of the permanent force. Those teachers who are successful will remain in the work.

Plan III—Alternate the visits. Visit half of the teachers one year, and the other half the next year. This plan does not mean an equal distribution of the teachers; it means a step forward and two steps backward for many of the teachers. Some need to be shown, some need only suggestions, some need encouragement, and some need strict surveillance; a year lost means a step backward for them all.

Plan IV—Visit every teacher once. Reach them all through meetings; entire teaching body, grade meetings, sectional meetings, and individual conferences. Give the rest of the time to follow-up work with teachers who claim, deserve, or need attention. This seems to be the least objectionable solution to a well-nigh impossible problem.

With 130 teachers to visit and a territory of 500 square miles to cover, only faith will keep a supervisor of high ideals from profound discouragement. She must obtain courage and confidence from those results which indicate progress, and must trust that her efforts will hasten the day when boards of education in a large county will come to the conviction that the employment of more than one competent supervisor is an economic and educational necessity.

Supervision "on call." There are those who advocate that supervisory assistance may be provided chiefly in response to requests from the teachers themselves; that is, the supervisor should be "on call." This might be good policy if the teachers were zealous, well trained, competent, and alive to their needs. But many teachers are not able to recognize their major problems. Teachers, as we have said before, often have to be brought

to an awareness of their own problems. They need to be stimulated to become students of their own profession. The *1930 Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction shows conclusively that teachers—trained teachers—present to supervisors an enormous volume of minute, specific requests. They wish devices, books, materials, suggestions—"little ways to meet little problems." They want to be told exactly what to do.

It is surprising that trained teachers do not "know their way around" so to speak. Burton⁸ insists that we need a different type of teacher-training from that which we have had to the present. "Both teacher-training and supervision," he says, "must combine progressively to revolutionize the aims and procedures of teacher-training. Supervisory leadership of a high type is impossible when supervisory energy is taken up in supplying teachers with specific minutiae which they, the teachers, should be able to derive for themselves."

The *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence asserts that "supervision has for its object the development of a group of professional workers who attack their problems scientifically, free from the control of tradition, and actuated by the spirit of inquiry." Perhaps with zealous, well trained, and competent teachers who attack their problems scientifically, supervision can be chiefly "on call," but we are a long way from that goal.

"The demand may well be made," according to the *Eighth Yearbook*,⁹ "that as a result of supervision all teachers do better work and all are ready to accept greater responsibility. Possibly the most severe test that can be applied to the work of a supervisor is to ask in what degree the abler members of the staff have realized their highest possibilities under his leadership."

⁸ William H. Burton, "Probable Next Steps in the Progress of Supervision," *The Journal of Educational Method*, Vol. 9, No. 7 (April, 1930), p. 406.

⁹ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930, p. 13.

By directing the attention of these teachers to professional reading of an advanced type, by holding meetings that are in keeping with the professional knowledge and skill of such teachers, by stimulating them to undertake experimental work, and by indicating those phases of training that will fit them for supervisory or administrative positions, the supervisor will see to it that the strongest teachers in the system are encouraged to develop greater professional ability and enthusiasm.

"Supervision on call" implies that the supervisor is a service agent ready to furnish aid when invited to do so. It implies that weak teachers recognizing their specific weaknesses will "call" for the supervisor's services; that all teachers recognizing their own major problems or the problems of the teaching profession will request supervisory aid. But since comparatively few teachers really know their own needs or are really aware of their own potentialities, the supervisor must often give aid, guidance, and encouragement through visits that are not in response to request or invitation.

Each visit is usually part of a large plan. Shall a particular supervisory visit have its place in a series of visits, that is, be part of a large plan? This should *usually* be the case, but not necessarily always. Sometimes the supervisor plans to concentrate on a certain subject or subjects—it may be history or geography or both. A supervisor who was stressing careful preparation for the teaching of those subjects made a series of visits for the purpose of helping the teachers plan their work to better advantage. This supervisor and his teachers knew that after each visit the conference would center around three points: (1) the extent to which current happenings were woven into class discussions, (2) the extent to which supplementary materials were used freely for directed study, (3) the extent to which children's interests, activities, and needs were considered.

Many supervisors discuss with their teachers in professional group meetings certain educational objectives, and then in their supervisory visits to classrooms follow up those objectives. For

example, a group of sixty primary teachers early in September summarized under their supervisor's guidance the "factors underlying good teaching." Realizing that self-improvement comes only through critical self-analysis, they decided that each teacher would:

1. Make an initial analysis of herself as to strengths and weaknesses, and send the report to the supervisor.
2. Select one or two weaknesses each month for intensive work and ask the supervisor on her visits to note evidence of growth.

One teacher made the following picture of her professional self and sent it to the supervisor:

A Teacher's Self-Analysis

My good points:

1. I know the subject matter before attempting to present it.
2. I try always to have an aim.
3. I am thorough in what I try to teach.
4. I group children according to their ability.
5. I have a fair knowledge of child training.

My weak points:

1. I do not read enough material that would be helpful.
2. I ask too many fact questions and not enough thought questions.
3. I call too often upon the bright pupils.
4. I often overestimate a child's ability. Sometimes I underestimate it.
5. I do not provide enough variety in teaching.
6. I do not know the field of children's literature as well as I should.

In her classroom visits the supervisor endeavored to help each teacher in the thing that particular teacher was consciously trying to improve. Here, again, is an instance of purposeful classroom visiting.

Notetaking during observation is almost a necessity. Shall the supervisor take notes as he observes? If so, of what should these notes consist?

In order to discuss a lesson and give specific instances of good

or poor technique, a supervisor must take notes in the classroom. Criticism without evidence to sustain it is entitled to very little respect. In order to reconstruct a poor lesson a supervisor needs to take notes. Perhaps the geography lesson being observed is of a rambling, unorganized, question-and-answer type (as is the case, unfortunately, with so many geography lessons) requiring memory but no real thinking. As the lesson proceeds the supervisor mentally works a problem around which the lesson might be organized. He jots this problem down in his notebook and formulates several questions that will provoke some thinking on the part of the children. He is now ready with something specific and helpful to bring to the conference that takes place with the teacher before he leaves the school. This notetaking does not disturb a teacher if that teacher understands that often the notes are commendatory; but that whether favorable or adverse, the notes will be made available to her during the subsequent conference, and upon request will be left with her for future study or reference.

With experience the supervisor will not find this notetaking burdensome, but will become skillful in making a few notes tell a great deal. Before visiting the same teacher again, he will, as a part of his preparation, consult the notes that he made on previous visits to the same teacher. It is obvious that in addition to the uses already cited, this kind of notetaking has other values. It promotes careful observation and definite analysis; it provides material that may form the basis for one or more teachers' meetings; it is a useful record to have on file.

The following are typical examples of notes made by rural supervisors in the classroom, and discussed with the teacher before leaving the room. In every instance a copy of the notes was left with the teacher. The reader will understand that the notes are the framework for the individual conferences of supervisor and teachers.¹⁰

¹⁰ The examples here given represent the notes of two supervisors—Ruth DeVore and Grace Alder, in Carroll County, Maryland.

One-Teacher School—December 5, 1930

Number Work—Grade I

Pupils are not ready for abstract work.

Develop number concept through many experiences with materials and objects. (How many boys are present to-day? How many books do we need?)

Develop vocabulary through objects and pictures. (Who is the tallest boy in our class? Who is the smallest girl in our room?) See course of study outline; also Badanes and Badanes: *A Child's Number Primer*.

Arithmetic—Grade 2

Keep within work for the grade.

Test pupils to find what combinations are not known. Teach combinations not known.

Concentrate on a few facts in a lesson.

Drill to make facts automatic.

Apply in oral and written problems.

Three-Teacher School—November 18, 1930

Social Studies—Grade 3—Pilgrim Life

1. You are covering too much material in a lesson. Plan each lesson around a certain question. Homes? Work? Dress? Food? Fun?
2. Give children opportunity to tell what they know.
3. You are making good use of pictures.
4. Keep your English standards in mind.
5. Work for better habits:—Lower hands when others are talking. Remain in seats during recitation period. Be attentive when others are talking.

Work Period

1. Work up rules or standards with the children.
2. Each child should know what he is to do.
3. Child who needs help should ask for it.
4. Check up on work done at end of period.
5. Use the last three minutes for "straightening up."

One-Teacher School—December 4, 1930

Reading—Grade 1

1. Test informally—regularly.
Work for independence in doing work.

2. Continue chart stories:

- To supplement primer
- To introduce new words
- To test

3. Drill to fix vocabulary. Vary drill.

4. Provide seat work that requires much reading.

Provide units that use the old and the new words in many different stories.

5. Review stories. Reread with a new purpose. (Read a favorite story to Grade 2.)

Geography—Grades 5 and 6—Introduction to Study of India

Make the work more vital. Plan an approach that will arouse interest.

Possible points of contact:

1. Story of Gandhi
2. Story of Vasco da Gama
3. A part of the British Empire

Make definite assignments.

Have study lessons to set up good habits of study.

One-Teacher School—October 6, 1930

Spelling—Study new words from standpoint of use and meaning as well as from that of pronunciation and sequence of letters.

History—Grade 4

1. Do pupils understand?
2. Give much help with vocabulary. Drill to fix new words, new places, new persons. Make pupils conscious of *growing* history vocabulary.
3. Use maps, globe, pictures, and blackboard.
4. Encourage pupils to find pictures in other books, and in magazines and papers.
5. Have study lessons with pupils. Discuss topics studied. Summarize.
6. Test. Review (with a *new* view).
7. Have a "History Corner." Collect pictures—label. Have date cards.

One-Teacher School—October 22, 1930

Music—Grades 1 and 2

Good selection of songs.

Test out children's voices; some are too low.

Always use your pitch pipe.

If you will sing the first phrase you will give children time and tone.

What do we mean by "good position"?

Study your manual—Grades 1 and 2.

Order "Songs of Childhood" from the office.

Arithmetic—Grade 3—Drill lesson "Telling Time"

Good use made of time. Children attentive and interested. Give seat work as a check on class work. Written directions are better than oral. Why?

Children's difficulties in seat work often due to lack of vocabulary.

Arithmetic—Grade 4

1. Be careful not to cover material too quickly.
2. Use the board to clear up work not understood—oral explanations are *not* always clear to whole group.
3. Have children *prove* they understand.
4. Begin with more simple problems.
5. You will have to supplement your text with simple problems for drill. Use Otis. Children can make problems.
6. How can you check on knowledge of all children?

Summary. An experienced and successful supervisor once gave the following advice for classroom visiting to an enthusiastic and ambitious young supervisor who was just starting out in the profession:

First, go directly to the rear of the room and choose one of the back seats for yourself. Second, work every moment you are in the room. To analyze teaching constructively requires that when you see good teaching you be able to specify points of strength; when you see poor teaching you be able to specify points of weakness and to give definite help to the teacher, either by suggestion or demonstration. This means *work*—close and accurate observation; critical diagnosis and analysis; organization of ideas for improvement; recall of sources of information that will reinforce your suggestions; an individual conference with the teacher. Third, remember from visit to visit the way you have tried to help a particular teacher so that you may follow it up. Fourth, let the teachers feel that your personality is positive, not negative; that you are scientific, not sentimental; that you are democratic, not autocratic.

In the light of this chapter it is evident that the supervisor must do careful thinking and planning for his classroom visits. The successful teacher works with a schedule, makes long term plans and single lesson plans, and *knows her children*. A schedule

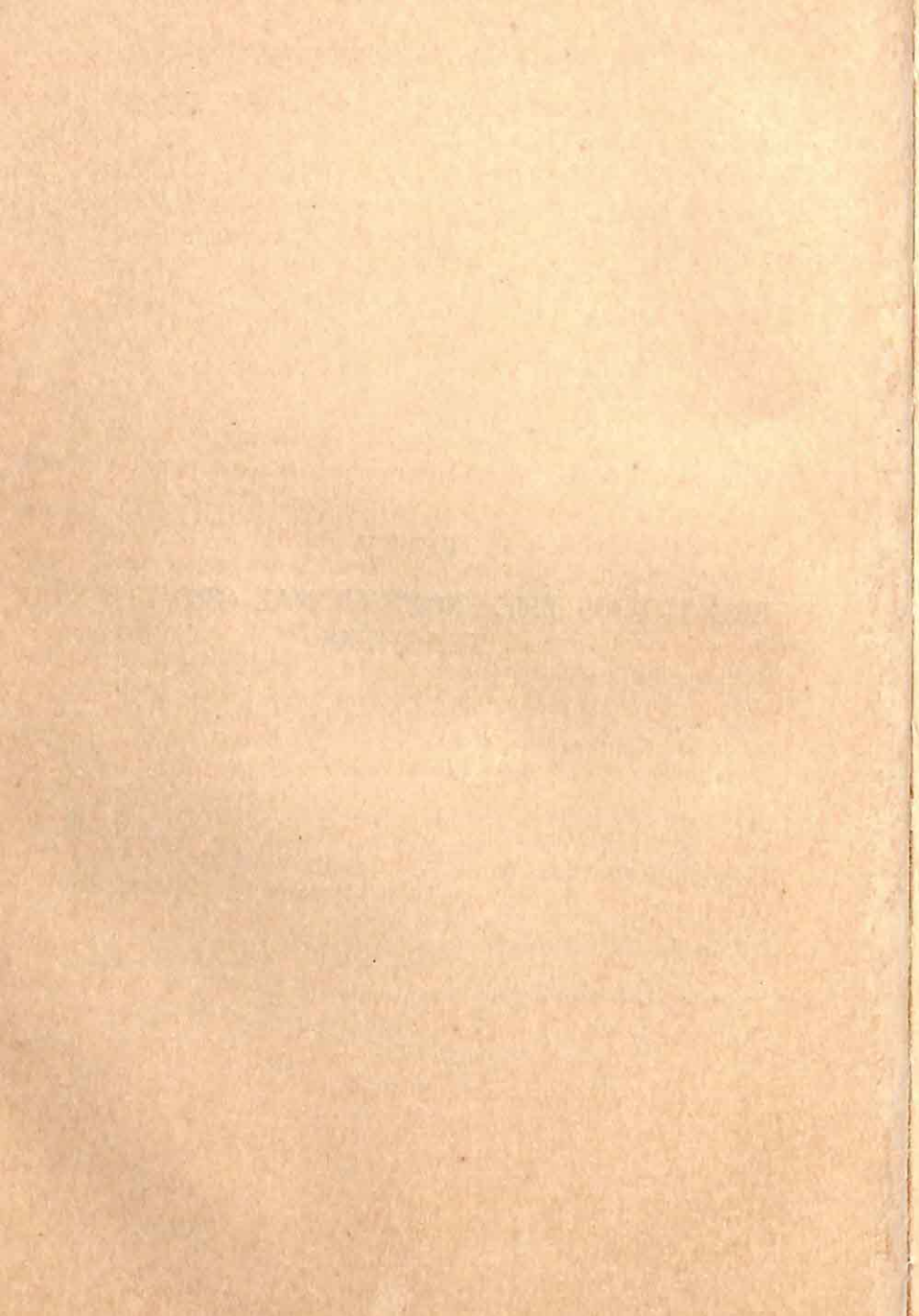
and a plan that will fit the needs of the individuals with whom one works are just as essential to good supervisory procedure as they are to good teaching procedure. To be really helpful to the teacher in her own classroom is a task that requires a great deal of knowledge, skill, technique, interest, and effort.

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PART IV

PROMOTING THE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH OF
TEACHERS



CHAPTER VIII

MEETING THE NEEDS OF TEACHERS THROUGH INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCES

The previous chapter concluded with an insistence that supervision be scientific, not sentimental; democratic, not autocratic; that the supervisor's personality be positive, not negative. These recommendations are particularly pertinent to the success of the conference between the supervisor and the individual teacher who is in need of help on some specific problem. Such a conference is, perhaps, the most valuable and most frequently used means for improving the instruction under the charge of the rural supervisor. Furthermore, it is in the personal interview that the supervisor's finest opportunity as a teacher of and among teachers presents itself.

The problem of the supervisor similar to the problem of the teacher. To instruct teachers in their group meetings is easier for most supervisors than to instruct teachers in their classrooms. Teaching a teacher in her own situation requires specific definiteness of a different kind from that required in teaching teachers in groups. As one supervisor expresses it, "It is almost the same as the teacher who takes a child, teaches him in class, then takes him at the blackboard or at his desk after school, finds out what is the matter with him, and helps him to overcome his difficulties." Her success with the child depends upon her ability to understand him, upon her knowledge of the subject matter, and upon her skill in helping the child to get the subject matter. In other words, the supervisor's problem is in many respects analogous to the teacher's problem. Desirable changes must take place in the learner, accurate information must be acquired,

effective habits of work must be formed, certain skills must be built up, right attitudes must be induced.

This conception of supervision is quite different from the old idea typified by such statements as: "The business of the supervisor is to cast a genial influence over the school, but, otherwise, not to interfere with the work." "The supervisor is like a sea captain of mediæval time, upon a chartless sea."

Supervision to-day, even in rural areas, where sentimental ideas and practices are apt to linger for a longer period than in urban areas, has become more definite, more practical, less emotional, more scientific.

An analogy has already been drawn between the problems of the supervisor and the problems of the teacher. Through the following illustration we may make still another analogy between the remedial procedures of supervisor and teacher. The scene described occurred after the child's first week at school:

FATHER: How do you like your new teacher?

CHILD: She is kind. If you do anything good she tells you so.

If you don't, she doesn't say anything; but she sits down beside you and doesn't leave until you know the right way to do it.

The dialogue describes clearly a sound psychological practice that a supervisor may well copy and apply, a practice that cannot fail to build constructively upon the intelligence and the willing spirit of the teacher.

The time, place, and length of conferences. When, where, and how long should be the conference between teacher and supervisor? Those who have written books and articles on supervision usually say that the conference "must be tactful, unhurried, and must never come at the fag end of the day." Some people insist that when the conference is to be based on the teaching observed, sufficient time must elapse between observation and conference to permit the supervisor to make a "rather detailed outline of his visit . . . noting points for commendation as well as for correc-

tion." There are those who recommend that several days elapse between the observation and the interview, "that the work observed may be studied carefully from every angle, that the supervisor may consult references both as to principles and procedures and work out a plan before bringing the results of his diagnosis and analysis to the personal interview." This last suggestion brings to mind a certain type of medical practitioner who forty or more years ago, when summoned to the bedside of a patient would take the patient's pulse, hear him recite his symptoms, and would then open a big "doctor book," read a paragraph or two dealing with similar symptoms, and prescribe for the patient.

There is no set time, place, nor manner of handling individual conferences; it all depends upon circumstances. Perhaps, ideally, an hour or more of time should elapse between the observation and the conference to permit the supervisor to make his part of it more definite and helpful. But often this is not feasible, nor is it in many instances necessary. Much of the teaching in rural schools and in city schools as well is of a kind so frequently seen by the supervisor that, if he is at all competent, he does not need to reflect over it; he needs to do something about it, and he knows right away what to do. Here are some examples of such teaching:

1. Teacher "heard" a third-grade reading lesson in which one pupil read aloud, the others keeping the place and waiting their turn.
2. At the end of two months in a one-teacher school five first-grade children read from the primer; two read readily, but in a sing-song tone; two were slow word-readers; one did not recognize enough words to read at all.
3. Teacher drilled a second-grade class in addition through flashing cards, with ready response from pupils except on the $9 + 7$ and the $6 + 7$ combinations. Pupils who missed these were given one other opportunity to repeat them.
4. All the drill on the multiplication table of 9's was given serially.
5. When all but three pupils in a fifth-grade class of ten had difficulties with arithmetic problems, the teacher sent one of the three successful children to work one problem on the board for the others to see.

6. During the library period eight children gave book reports that they had memorized.

7. Teacher heard pupils recite what they had learned in the geography, history, civics, or hygiene texts.

8. The poem "November" by Helen Hunt Jackson was written on the board, evidently having been taught the day before. When recess time came the teacher announced that all might be dismissed except those who had not learned the poem. Four children began to work on it in a desultory, mechanical fashion.

Familiarity with professional literature essential to supervisor.

While there is a limitless amount of exploration and discovery still ahead for students of teaching and of supervision, the supervisor is not sailing "upon a chartless sea" like "a sea captain of mediæval time." There are charts aplenty, and every supervisor of elementary schools, whether in rural or urban areas, needs to be very well acquainted with them. Familiarity with the literature of the profession and with some of the best investigations, surveys, tests, and experiments will enable supervisors to answer such questions as the following, which are likely to arise during personal interviews with their teachers:

- How well and how fast should a fourth-grade child be able to write?
- What is an economical and effective way for pupils to study spelling?
- What habits tend to retard reading?
- How well should a seventh-grade pupil know decimal fractions?
- What are the steps of difficulty in multiplication?
- What is a typical drawing for a second-grade child?
- What are some serviceable standardized tests in the various school subjects?
- What are the uses and limitations of intelligence tests?
- Where is the subtractive or the additive method in subtraction well discussed?
- Where is the technique of drill adequately treated?
- What investigations have been made in supervised study?
- What references for teaching the appreciation of poetry will be helpful?
- What are some of the big issues concerning the social studies?
- Which half-a-dozen or more professional magazines may be recommended?
- What journals in the field of history or geography will be most helpful?

Where may be found good treatments of the problems of classification, retardation, and promotion?

Where may one read up on the "mastery" formula?

Where may one find teaching activities analyzed?

Where may one find teachers' check lists that are objective and practicable?

What books are especially helpful in methods of teaching the various school subjects?

Much more, however, is expected of the competent supervisor than that he know immediately how to answer such questions as the foregoing and that he know what to do in such cases as were cited on page 229. He should be able, before he leaves the teacher's classroom (if conditions permit), certainly before he leaves the school, to discuss with her the work that he sees, even when that work requires considerable diagnosis and analysis. If he cannot do this, he is a supervisor in name only.

Time and length of supervisory conferences. Many rural supervisors visit schools so far removed from their own offices that both common sense and convenience require that the work observed be discussed with teachers before leaving their schools. There are other reasons for an immediate or an early discussion of the work. Teachers are much more likely to develop an attitude of confidence and respect for the supervisor if he confers with them before leaving the school. There is also a great advantage in conferring while the interest is at its height and while the details of the work are fresh in the minds both of teacher and supervisor. Of course, however, there are instances when the exigencies of the situation are such that it is better for the supervisor to appoint another time for conferring with the teacher. Frequently rural supervisors invite two, three, or more teachers who have the same needs to an office conference on Saturday morning, where such matters as seatwork and study assignments, or planning lessons in larger units may be considered at some length.

When visiting in one-teacher or two-teacher rural schools the

personal interview usually takes place at recess when the pupils may be granted a longer recreation period, or at the noon hour, or immediately after school.

It is probably better for the discussion to be confined to one or two phases of work. The length of the conference will depend upon the significance of the topics to be considered; upon the character and amount of work that the supervisor has done with the teacher in previous conferences; upon the professional insight of the teacher; upon the supervisor's way of thinking and working—some supervisors are businesslike, definite and forceful, while others waste time in a rambling and often inconsequential discussion that leaves the teacher with no clear evaluation of her procedures and needs—and upon the amount of time available. Some very satisfactory conferences are conducted in fifteen minutes, but most conferences require from twenty-five to forty minutes.

Techniques involved in individual conferences. To satisfy an inquiring son who was trying to distinguish between the words *visit* and *visitation*, a father thus explained the distinction: "When you visit your maternal grandmother, that is a *visit*; but when she comes here, that is a *visitation*." Whether or not the teacher considers that she has had a visit or a visitation from her supervisor depends largely upon the techniques that the latter develops in the conference period and the general uses to which such a period is put.

Supervisors have, presumably, once upon a time been skillful teachers of children. As supervisors, they are now teachers of teachers. But a skillful teacher does not always make a good supervisor. Helping pupils to solve an arithmetic problem is quite different from helping teachers to solve a disciplinary problem. Telling pupils how to study geography is quite different from telling teachers how to teach geography. A different technique is required. The fact that teachers have mature personalities and that they are in positions of authority makes the whole situation different in many respects. Adults cannot be

dealt with in the same way that one deals with children. But whereas teaching teachers is different from teaching children, there are many ways in which the two situations are analogous. Knowledge, habits, skills, and attitudes must be acquired, whether the learner be a child under the guidance of a teacher, or a teacher under the guidance of a supervisor. When a supervisor discusses instruction with teachers, there should be the understanding that he is, in general, subject to the same standards applied to teachers when they teach children.

Ideally, a conference is a place where people think together, feel together, and work together. Classroom conferences should be coöperative discussions for the purpose of meeting a clearly defined need.

By emphasizing principles and purposes in these coöperative discussions rather than inflexible practices, patterns, and devices, the wise supervisor endeavors to conserve and to develop individual talents, originality, executive ability, and particular teaching aptitudes. This does not mean that the supervisor allows teachers to persist in wasteful methods of teaching in the face of demonstrated ways of effective teaching, or that he gives way to the vagrant likes and dislikes of teachers, but rather that by setting forth proved and accepted standards he induces the teachers to accept and to apply those principles that are fundamental to growth and progress.

Recognizing individual differences among teachers. All teachers from the poorly trained and inexperienced novice to the master craftsman profit by the leadership of a competent supervisor, and, generally speaking, will develop to the extent that the supervisor recognizes the various levels of proficiency among his teachers and is able to adapt sound professional policies to the needs of these levels. Many supervisors waste a great deal of time and energy in trying to make teachers conform to a certain way of thinking and doing. To be sure, there are many respects in which teachers can change and in which it is often better for everybody concerned to have them change, but for the supervisor

to insist upon change in certain other respects would take away all individuality. Some people are quiet and reserved by nature, others are excitable and emotional. Sometimes the boisterous teacher is more forceful by reason of his boisterousness. Visitors to the class of a popular and efficient principal of a village school severely criticized him for roaring at his pupils. That principal could, however, roar at his class and, as some one remarked, "get away with it," while another teacher would have been unable to succeed in the face of such an unfortunate handicap. For in the make-up of each individual there are qualities and habits that balance each other to such an extent that even a too bluff heartiness or a too quiet manner may be offset by an evident sincerity and a kindliness that in the main produces a wholesome effect. The numerous studies of personality that have been made make the point again and again that it is not the single quality or trait that makes the individual, but that it is the blending of these qualities and traits in satisfactory proportion that counts. The rights of teachers to their own individualities must be respected by supervisors. Some supervisors know educational principles but do not know human nature. As a discriminating teacher, resentful of a certain supervisor's steam-roller methods, once remarked, "Everybody has his own special way of having typhoid fever, so that is why we cannot take treatment for it through a phonograph."

Most rural supervisors visit and confer with teachers who vary as widely in respect to native ability, experience, training, and attitude toward their work as do the pupils in the little one-teacher school of seven grades. Roughly classified, there are inexperienced untrained teachers; inexperienced trained teachers; experienced teachers with promise and experienced teachers without promise; teachers of fine training and superior merit. It is obvious that since these varied groups of teachers have widely divergent needs, classroom conferences must be conducted on very different levels.

Conferences with beginning and new teachers. A successful

and experienced supervisor of rural schools who worked with fifty-five teachers, twenty-four of whom were in one-teacher schools and thirty-one of whom were in either two-teacher or three-teacher schools, reports on the needs of the new teachers as she saw them, and tells just how she helped these teachers. The report will repay careful study for several reasons. It shows that in spite of a county's being well organized for supervision, and notwithstanding the fact that the new teachers were normal-school graduates, these teachers needed specific help and needed it right away. The help they received was definite and practical. The complexities of the daily schedule were smoothed out and the texts were reconciled to the courses of study; a workable scheme for the planning of lessons was decided upon; questions concerning classroom management, school housekeeping, and parent-teacher associations were considered. The report serves to illustrate supervisory responsibilities to the new teacher—responsibilities that are frequently overlooked.¹

This year the rural group contained 14 beginning teachers (new normal school graduates), 8 substitutes (assistants in one-room schools where the average had unexpectedly increased), and 7 transfers (experienced teachers who had transferred from one school to another within the same group). This number of teachers, 29 out of a total of 55, coming into new situations determined largely the policy of the supervising teacher on her first round of visits in the fall. The teachers who had secured positions in one-room schools must be made acquainted with the administrative duties to be assumed; they must also understand that schools of this type are organized on the basis of combination of grades and alternation of courses. The supervising teacher conducted a meeting for beginning teachers before the opening of school where grade combination was discussed; but in spite of this preliminary discussion certain irregularities occurred which meant that a second conference needed to be held after the teacher had been confronted with the problems peculiar to her own individual school. The supervising teacher needs to make sure that the alternation of courses is clearly understood.

Fortunately, the classrooms of the county are well supplied with supplementary readers. For instance, the "Intermediate Group" compris-

¹ Jennie E. Jessop, "A Supervisor of Rural Schools Analyses Her Task," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, November, 1925, pp. 515-519.

ing the fourth and fifth grades has a wide range of material from which to select class work. All the fourth-grade books as well as the fifth-grade books are at their disposal for the two years' work. An achievement record naming the specific books read by the intermediate group this year prevents a new teacher from assigning any of the same books next year. Furthermore, a written record by the teacher of what has been achieved proves to be more trustworthy than reliance upon the conflicting statements of pupils.

The new teacher in any type of school needs assistance in the matter of distributing the textbooks. She seldom remembers that primary grades will profit by reading, for a week or two in September, a reader belonging to a preceding grade. When a new reader arrives for the second grade, the third-grade pupils greatly enjoy reading the second-grade stories—brimful of interest to them—not only because they are fresh and new, but because the vocabulary is simple enough to be read with ease by third-grade pupils at this time of the year. Not only does the beginning teacher need to be reminded of the importance of the review work in September, she needs also to be told the sequence in which her texts are to be given to the pupils. She has had no experience with these texts and cannot, therefore, be expected to select and reserve the more difficult ones for the latter part of the year. She may not discover the existence of certain reference books and supplementary readers which may aid in history and geography teaching until the appropriate time for their introduction has passed. A mimeographed list of books to use in rural schools for each group, named according to difficulty, is distributed at the preliminary meeting. This facilitates the work and economizes the time of both classroom teacher and supervising teacher when texts are discussed in this first conference. Frequently the method of using a new book needs to be interpreted to the teacher. *The Learn to Study Readers*, for example, may fail utterly to achieve their aim if the teacher reads aloud the questions, permitting the pupils to give only the answers. Much practice in silent reading is the real purpose of the book, and sometimes the teacher is unwittingly depriving the children of this very thing.

On these initial supervisory visits no question is propounded with more earnestness by the beginning teacher in the rural school than "How can I follow the course of study in a one-room school and at the same time use my text in an effective way?" The supervising teacher endeavors to show in a concrete way how to handle a specific topic in the history or geography course.

The daily program also requires attention from the supervising teacher on these first visits. Certain changes must be made to adapt the program to individual classrooms. A grade may be missing or an extra section of

some class may need to be formed, which means that a special program must be planned to fit this particular situation.

The type of "daily plan" required in the one-room school is another matter concerning which the new teacher is certain to make inquiry. The supervising teacher selects a specific lesson or several lessons of different types and plans them with the teacher to show one method which may be used. There is no definite, uniform system of planning mandatory for the group. There is a suggestive procedure, however, which those who have no better plan of their own may adopt. The three-book system—primary, intermediate, and grammar—where the teacher plans the *study assignments* outside of her classroom hours, which naturally determine the type of class work to follow for each group of pupils, has, during the past five years, proved to be the most satisfactory method of planning. Having the three separate plan books, the teacher can direct pupils from the intermediate and grammar-grade groups to place the assignments on the board. The recess periods need not, therefore, be entirely consumed by the teacher in writing seatwork assignments on the board for the several groups of pupils. A mimeographed paper showing typical plans made by teachers of the one- and two-room schools is explained by the supervising teacher and left with the new teacher to give her an idea of the kind of planning which has been found practical to the needs of rural schools.

Classroom habits are being initiated during these first days of school. The supervising teacher must be careful to observe any signs of license which may mean that the beginning teacher is confusing a false idea of freedom with good classroom management. The supervising teacher can often check this looseness of control which a little later may degenerate into absolute failure in discipline, by suggesting a quiet, orderly procedure for dismissal of classes, by showing the transformation which may take place in a restless room when interesting and challenging seatwork assignments are made, or perhaps by showing the effect of a systematic adherence to the schedule of classes.

The attention of the teacher is directed also toward the physical conditions, or *housekeeping*, of her school during these September and October supervisory visits. The standards which the rural group has adopted for its own are discussed with each new teacher. A mimeographed outline of such topics as ventilation, lighting, heating, arrangement of book cupboards, care of water cooler, regulation of heating plant, cleanliness, and inspection of indoor and outdoor toilets, and of the school grounds is made the basis for this conference.

Community work is often uppermost in the mind of the beginning teacher. She is full of questions concerning the conduct of her parent-

teacher association and is ready to accept any suggestions which may be given to aid her in this phase of the work.

The beginning teacher usually senses the fact that first-grade work lays the foundation for all future effort. The first grade is the place to initiate right habits of work in reading and right attitudes toward reading as a thought-getting process. The task of the supervising teacher is to make absolutely certain that each new teacher entertains this idea of the importance of first-grade work. The supervising teacher must continually bring before these teachers the best-known methods for securing power and independence in first-grade reading. Early in the year the teachers should be made to realize that after the initial or basal vocabulary has been attained, the first-grade children will become better readers if they have the opportunity of reading several books rather than if they master merely one or perhaps two books. More extensive reading by the first-grade class is accepted as a group objective.

During the first round of visits the supervising teacher is observing different types of classroom work and is registering, from these observations and from the types of questions asked, the outstanding needs of the group. Procedures for teaching first-grade reading, phonics, the content subjects in the intermediate and grammar groups, spelling, silent and oral reading are foremost in the minds of all, now that the school machinery is in running order. Accordingly a demonstration meeting was held at Ridge, a one-teacher school, on October 17, for the beginning teachers. Classroom work specially planned to meet their most urgent needs was observed from nine o'clock until twelve. The visiting teachers were requested to note carefully each step in the lessons taught to enable them: (1) to take an active part in the afternoon discussion period; (2) to take home a method for teaching each of the subjects observed; (3) to demonstrate ability to teach these subjects effectively, by one method at least, on the occasion of the next visit of the supervising teacher.

The foregoing report exemplifies a supervisor's recognition of many responsibilities to new teachers and her way of meeting them. Whereas her conferences with the teachers are not outlined in detail, enough suggestions are given to indicate the manner and scope of such conferences.

Young teachers come from the normal school with a knowledge of such techniques as keeping records, making out requisitions and reports, caring for the classroom, mounting and filing pic-

tures and other materials, making sets of drill materials for arithmetic, making sets of reading seatwork for children. They are usually "short" on subject matter and skill but "long" on notebook method and theory. When confronted with their teaching situations many of them try to follow the procedures of their recent critic teachers; some of them revert to methods by which they were taught in their days in the elementary school; a few of them apply what they know of theory. They do not appear to understand some of the simplest rudiments of school management or classroom technique. Their best qualification for teaching seems often to be their enthusiasm. These young teachers should not be left to flounder. Their enthusiasm needs not only to be conserved but to be harnessed and directed toward fine professional activities. They need help in adjusting themselves to the new environment. They need to feel and to experience the interest, helpfulness, sincerity, and good will of the supervisor in every phase of their work—the use of the course of study, the planning of lessons, the teaching of lessons.

The record of a seventh-grade reading lesson taught by a girl during her first year of teaching and the way in which the supervisor helped this young teacher to analyze the weaknesses of her lesson will serve to illustrate this important phase of supervisory activity.

SEVENTH-GRADE READING LESSON

The Lesson

As preparation for the reading lesson, the children had been assigned a list of words to pronounce and define.

The lesson was introduced by a boy who told in a halting fashion something of what had been read in the previous lesson. Then followed oral reading of the new part.

The teacher asked a question which brought out the main thought of the paragraph, as she called upon a child to read it orally. Margaret, the first girl who read, could not pronounce *usurper*. She was told to sit down. The next child called it *üs-ēr-p'ër*, but was not corrected. There was very indifferent and faulty pronunciation of the proper names.

Margaret was again called upon toward the end of the lesson to read, but she refused by shaking her head and keeping her place. Later a boy said he did not wish to read, but after some urging he stood and read very well.

The teacher made no comment during the lesson, but at the end said, "You still do not know how to hunt up words and pronunciations. *Usurper* and *joust* were mispronounced." She gave help with those two words.

The Conference

The following questions were discussed by supervisor and teacher.

- I. Some of the important points involved in the lesson:
 - A. What was the purpose of the lesson?
 1. Was it reading for enjoyment of the story?
 2. Was it to give pupils practice in using the dictionary for pronouncing and defining words? Is this a worthy aim? Was it realized?
 3. Just what reading skills and appreciations did this lesson promote?
 4. What were some of the undesirable outcomes?
 - B. How much previous practice had the children had in this kind of dictionary work?
 1. Was it correct practice?
 2. Was it practice with satisfaction?
 3. Should the dictionary work have been "checked" before the children read?
 - C. Did the teacher give sufficient help in this lesson?
 1. What help did she give?
 2. Where did she show poor management?
 3. Where did she show poor technique?
 - D. Was the right attitude toward reading being developed?
- II. Suggestions made by the supervisor:
 - A. Finding words in the dictionary is not ordinarily a sufficient or satisfying motive to give children for preparing a reading lesson. The assignment for study might include such a question as "Why did the experience in the forest have an effect upon James different from the effect it had upon his three companions?"
 - B. Hold the children responsible for mastering difficulties. It is evident that they need to be helped with the pronunciation of words; they have not yet reached the point where they can be trusted to master words by independent dictionary study. They were not "ready" to read orally until the difficulties of pronunci-

ation had been cleared away. Check up on the children's dictionary study (so far as pronunciation is concerned) before you let them read aloud. (Supervisor showed the teacher how to do this.)

- C. You have not established any standards of good oral reading with your class. Let the children set up definite goals which they wish to attain; such as:

- To make the audience see the pictures
- To read with pleasing, easily understood voices
- To enunciate clearly and pronounce words correctly
- To read smoothly
- To stand correctly

III. Summary of conference made by the teacher:

"I am not developing in these children a love for reading; indeed, I am afraid they dislike their reading lessons. I shall try after this to give them a motive for reading. I shall try to help them with their difficulties. I shall hold up definite reading standards, and by praising the children as they accomplish one or more of these standards I hope to show you an entirely different class by the end of the year. I shall do as you suggest and read the ninth chapter in *How to Teach Reading*, by Pennell and Cusack."

Conferences with experienced and strong teachers. The supervisor finds many experienced teachers who are helped by the same type of lesson analysis that has just been illustrated. In other words, they need to be helped in practically the same way as do inexperienced teachers. There are experienced teachers who have become set into a groove or pattern of teaching activities. Of course, each year they teach different groups of children; but, overshadowed by routine, they do the same things, from the same book, in the same way, at the same time. As some one has expressed it, such teachers have reached the "twilight of efficiency." They need to be shown several other procedures, to compare the relative advantages of these, and to choose from among them. The following skeleton outline, which was illuminated by discussion and was left with the teacher, shows how a rural supervisor, after observing a geography lesson with a class composed of fifth- and sixth-grade pupils, tried to help one of these "twilight" teachers.

Fifth- and Sixth-Grade Geography—Cities of the British Isles

1. Material is being covered too quickly. Pupils are reciting facts only. The use of references will give more details. Use *Nations as Neighbors* by Packard and Sinnott. See list of books in the course of study. Order what you need from the conference room library.
2. In a lesson of this type you might:
 - a. Study only one or two cities during one lesson
 - b. Have each pupil learn all he can about one city and report to class
 - c. Have a group of pupils learn about one city and report to class
 After each report have the listeners list the chief characteristics of the city.
3. Make use of pictures, current events, maps
4. Stress historic facts that are connected with these cities

Many supervisors, before offering any criticisms or suggestions on the work that they observe, endeavor through questions to encourage self-analysis by the teacher. Here are a few illustrations of such approaches, which frequently serve to open the way to a conference in which the teacher entertains a point of view of her own and does as much thinking and talking as the supervisor.

Fifth-Grade History

SUPERVISOR: "I liked several features of your lesson. What did you think of it?"

TEACHER: "I am worried because the pupils did not get what they should from the reference books. What they gave was so trivial and unimportant."

Sixth-Grade Arithmetic

SUPERVISOR: "Your lesson was a good illustration of teaching arithmetic for understanding rather than for manipulation. How well were you satisfied with it?"

TEACHER: "I have been trying since the beginning of the year to stimulate a larger proportion of my pupils to think. I especially had that aim in mind to-day. Why didn't we get thoughtful responses from a larger number of pupils?"

Fourth-Grade Language

TEACHER: "Well, Miss ——, my lesson was terrible, wasn't it?"

SUPERVISOR: "It wasn't a strong lesson. What makes you call it terrible?"

First- and Second-Grade "Activity Periods"

SUPERVISOR: "What bothers you most during these activity periods?"

TEACHER: "I often wonder whether what the children are 'tinkering at' is really worth while?"

Out of a wholesome tendency to self-criticism springs the most substantial growth both of teacher and supervisor. When teacher and supervisor reach that degree of mutual confidence and esteem where the teacher takes the lead in critical appraisal of her own work, one of the greatest obstacles to successful supervision has been surmounted. It means first that pedagogic flaws are being treated objectively as things that affect the pupil's progress and hence are to be cleared away; second, that teachers are recognizing some of the major problems upon which they need supervisory assistance, instead of concerning themselves with minor items that they should attack without supervisory aid.

Should a supervisor be content to let well enough alone? The skilled artisan may become an artist if stimulated to make the most of her abilities. There are three types of supervisors who work with strong teachers:

1. Those who recognize superior work but feel no urge to direct the activity of the teacher to higher levels of teaching.
2. Those who recognize superior work but feel it incumbent to find some flaw and make some criticism.
3. Those who recognize superior work, express keen appreciation of it, and assume responsibility for furthering the professional growth of the teacher.

Individual conferences that will further the professional growth of the superior teacher may center around any one of many phases of school work. Suppose, for example, a new organization

of subject matter or a new teaching procedure is being considered. The supervisor confers with a strong teacher and suggests that the teacher may like to try it out in her own classes. Later, aided by the supervisor's criticism, she demonstrates it for the group of teachers, inviting their criticism and analysis. Perhaps the supervisor, uncertain whether or not to organize his larger schools on the basis of homogeneous grouping, may have a superior teacher assigned to a class of very bright children, or to a class of retarded children in order to estimate the advantages of such grouping. Other phases of work that may be the subject of experimentation by superior teachers before being adopted by the whole group of teachers are: organizing subject matter around large units, combining two grades in the one-teacher schools and alternating subjects, a new method for teaching spelling, a plan for supervised study, the use of several texts in history or geography for a class instead of one basal text, experimenting with several texts in arithmetic in order to decide which is best.

Illustrations of individual conferences with strong teachers, following the observation of lessons, are found in this chapter on pages 246-253.

Check list for individual conferences. As a check list for evaluating individual supervisory conferences, a group of eight rural supervisors agreed upon ten guiding statements. They are included here as a brief summary of the techniques involved in individual conferences.

1. A teacher of teachers is, in general, subject to the same principles as a teacher of children.
2. Classroom conferences should be coöperative discussions in which the supervisor does some of the listening.
3. In general, the conference following the supervisor's visit to the classroom should concern itself with the supervisor's observations and activities during that particular visit.
4. The prevailing unit of study and discussion with the teacher should be one whole lesson, rather than a series of lessons or fragments of recitations.

5. The classroom conference in meeting a clearly defined need should concern itself with underlying principles, not trivial details.
6. Teaching should be discussed on the basis of the results produced in children in terms of knowledge, attitudes, and skills, regardless of whether or not it conforms to procedures and methods initiated by the supervisor.
7. Criticism of classroom activities should be constructive rather than destructive. Negative criticism is generally unnecessary and undesirable.
8. The plans and principles discussed by supervisor and teacher should be well enough organized and forcibly enough presented to influence the teacher's thinking and to affect the teacher's conduct.
9. Teachers should be guided and encouraged toward habits of self-appraisal and self-activity.
10. Classroom conferences should be differentiated according to the levels of ability of the teachers who participate in them.

Objective supervision—three case studies. The ability to reason objectively instead of following impressionistic judgment is probably the most valuable trait any supervisor can possess. A supervisor who is able through reflective thinking and analysis to see cause and effect, even though his reasoning may sometimes be immature and faulty, can often accomplish more in thirty minutes than another, who follows the circuitous and uncertain course of instinct, can accomplish in thirty days. The Commission on Supervision of the Department of Superintendence, composed of a national committee of some of the most thoughtful students of supervision in the country, is authority for the statement that "the evaluation of the work in any classroom under present conditions is largely determined by the personal prejudices of the observer." The same classroom activity may be judged excellent by one supervisor, fair by another, and exceedingly poor by a third. They evidently use different criteria for evaluating lessons or else the criteria do not have the same meaning for all observers.

The three examples of supervisory effort that follow represent to a very high degree the much desired but rarely attained goal of objectivity in supervision. All three of the teachers with whom

the supervisor worked are strong teachers. All had had at one time or another the experience of teaching for demonstration purposes. The supervisor is exceptionally skillful in objective analysis. She is also exceptionally skillful in personal conferences with teachers. The lessons here reported are quite different—third-grade arithmetic drill; fourth-grade remedial work in reading; fifth-grade geography. Elements of strength in the teaching were discussed with each teacher. The supervisor differentiates her conferences according to the levels of ability of the teachers with whom she works. The three conferences here reported exemplify the fact that the needs of these teachers were reached, not through giving specific directions or procedures, but through objective evidence and a few questions to stimulate thinking.

THIRD-GRADE ARITHMETIC DRILL

The class was divided into two sections: one of five children, the other of six. The group of five was playing shuffle board on the floor and keeping score on the board.

Numbers from 1 to 9 were written in the spaces on the board. Each player had three chances. When his block covered a number he multiplied the number by 6 and recorded his score. These children were enjoying the game. They played with great interest and attention. They multiplied quickly, and each child seemed to be getting considerable practice in multiplying and then in adding the scores. Few mistakes were made.

The group working with the teacher had some rapid drill on multiplication facts of the table of six. The practice was motivated through games and varied by the use of devices. The children seemed to be gaining in speed, and when the lesson closed, there was 100 per cent accuracy for all six.

The supervisor commented favorably on the perfect responses of the children and on the excellent procedures for drilling which the teacher had used. She then asked the teacher if she thought the children had needed the amount of drill that was given. The teacher said that she was sure that they did. The supervisor then asked if the teacher could tell just how much better they knew the combinations at the end of the lesson than they did at the beginning. The teacher replied that the children now know the following which they did not know at the beginning of the lesson:

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ \times 6 \\ \hline \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 7 \\ \times 6 \\ \hline \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 8 \\ \times 6 \\ \hline \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 9 \\ \times 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

She explained that she had given the children some seat work to do by means of which she found their difficulties to be the above combinations. The six children who had worked with the teacher had all missed all of the four. The five who played shuffle board had each missed one.

The supervisor wondered if the practice in playing shuffle board gave them the specific help they needed. The teacher was sure that it did, because she was careful to include those numbers needing practice. The supervisor had not been able to check the individual practice during the game, but she directed the attention of the teacher to the scores still on the blackboard and found the following:

<i>Tom</i>			<i>Kate</i>			<i>Dick</i>			<i>Mary</i>			<i>Anna</i>		
12	24	12	18	12	30	36	18	6	18	24	12	12	18	30
30	54	18	12	30	18	12	24	12	12	12	54	54	12	18
18	24	18	6	12	12	6	48	24	6	12	36	54	24	30
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

6×1 had been repeated 4 times.

6×2 had been repeated 13 times.

6×3 had been repeated 8 times.

6×4 had been repeated 6 times. (But not at all by Kate, who was the only member of this group who had missed it.)

6×5 had been repeated 4 times.

6×6 had been repeated twice.

6×7 was not practiced.

(Tom and Anna had missed it.)

6×8 had been repeated once.

(Tom and Kate had missed it.)

6×9 had been repeated 4 times.

(Anna and Mary both needed the practice.)

On examining the shuffle board it was found that the numbers 1, 2, and 3 were near the front and easily reached by the block. Evidently it was physical skill they needed and not multiplication facts. The teacher did not have to be told the trouble; but she was then anxious to see what changes had taken place in the children of the group with which she had worked.

The supervisor asked to see the papers from which she had taken the difficulties. The examples were exercises in multiplying three-place digits by 6. The following are types of the mistakes made:

427	257	139	374	631	283
$\times 6$	$\times 6$	$\times 6$	$\times 6$	$\times 6$	$\times 6$
<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
2,569	1,234	836	1,824	637	1,708

The supervisor pointed out the mistakes and the teacher, much surprised, saw that there were only a few real mistakes in handling the multiplication facts.

The teacher decided that neither the game of shuffle board nor the directed drill had touched the children's needs.

FOURTH-GRADE REMEDIAL WORK IN READING

The lesson which was observed by the supervisor proceeded as follows:

The children were divided into three groups. Group A and Group B were to work independently, and Group C was to work with the teacher. Questions were written on the board to guide the reading of the A and B groups, and they were later on to tell what they had read to the rest of the class.

Group A—The story selected was a letter from a little boy in Serbia to an American friend.

Group B—The selection was a story about two little Dutch children.

Group C—The story was narrative material treating of life in Jugoslavia.

The children were asked to recall the work they had been doing in geography and to state the problems in which they were interested.

They reported that they were taking a trip around the world and were interested in finding out how the people lived in the countries which they visited—what they eat, what they wear, about their houses, how they travel, and something about the customs and playtime of the children. The teacher recorded on the board: *food, clothing, shelter, transportation, children*. The children were then set to work to get from their reading any information concerning the topics listed on the board.

The teacher hovered around those children whom she knew would need help, giving them a great deal of assistance. When time was called, the children were very anxious to tell what they had learned about the five topics. They reported very well. They gave the information in good style; they supplemented each other; they questioned several items of information, and selected parts from the reading matter to substantiate

their point of view. They selected pictures that had been placed on a bulletin board by the teacher previous to the lesson, which matched various descriptive parts in the reading.

Group C was then ready to hear what the other groups had to tell about Holland and Serbia. All of the children seemed to have a very enjoyable time and vied with each other in adding bits of information.

In the supervisory conference which followed the session, the supervisor complimented the teacher on the splendid lessons she had taught. The children had set up for themselves specific purposes for their reading; they had read with marked attention and interest, and reported on their topics completely and correctly. The teacher seemed pleased at this bit of commendation and then expressed her surprise at the fact that the children could do as well as they had done that day and still fall so far below standard in a test that measured ability to read fact material.

She explained that the class had been tested and found weak in that particular test; that she had planned this lesson among some other similar ones to give the children the practice of which they were obviously in need. This bit of explanation gave the supervisor the clue she needed to analyze the learning which had taken place. Here was a teacher with a purpose. How well defined in her own understanding was it? How far did she follow it? To what extent were the lesson procedure and content directed toward the purpose? How closely tied up were purposes, outcomes, and procedures, including the materials of instruction?

The supervisor asked the teacher if she recalled just what specific reading abilities the test measured. The teacher was not sure; but she quickly produced a copy of the test and together they examined it. They found it to be expository matter requiring understanding of a few technical words, ability to select main and subordinate ideas, ability to organize and draw conclusions from the data given. Then they examined the article which the class had just read and found it to be narration and description requiring merely an understanding of the information given and ability to visualize detail. The following questions arose concerning the children's reading:

Much that they said in their reports is not given in the story just read. Where did they get their information? How many facts given here were new to them? How much of real interest value has the story which was left untouched because it did not relate to the specific purposes of the reading?

The teacher's answers disclosed the following facts about the reading:

1. Many items of information given in the children's reports were not in the reading matter for the day, but had been learned in other grades and in outside readings.

2. Only one fact concerning the homes of the people was new to the majority of the children.

3. Much of the story element treating of the social customs, including Christmas and the national festivals, was left untold. The purpose of the story had been ignored and much that had been written for pleasure and enjoyment had been made to serve a teaching purpose for which it was not intended.

4. The children had participated in a "sham performance."

The supervisor left the following questions for the teacher to consider:

Were you teaching children *how to read* or were you teaching children *how to use reading as a tool*? Which is necessary when developing a specific reading ability?

Which is better, when using the story material of the readers, to help children realize the purpose of the story and to read to get the author's meaning, or to use the matter as reference material, as a source of information for history and geography facts? To find purposes in the matter or to read toward outside purposes?

Is it possible to build up the right attitude toward facts and sources of facts when material written to entertain and interest is used as source of information, and is treated as being authentic?

Shall we think of reading abilities as isolated from other abilities, as entities for which specific training can be given? Is it better to use the reading material of the grade level and teach children daily, systematically, and consistently, to master the problems which the reading matter contains when and as they meet them?

The supervisor would have been ready to analyze some of the difficulties of the teaching sooner if she had had a book and had thus been able to follow the children through the entire activity. As it happened, she and the teacher made the discoveries together, and she was able to do better supervision than if she had been far ahead of the teacher in realizing the trouble.

FIFTH-GRADE GEOGRAPHY

The class was directed to examine the statements which the teacher had written on the blackboard. They were these:

In 1867 the United States bought Alaska from Russia for \$7,200,000. In 1920 the products of Alaska yielded: salmon, \$37,000,000; copper, \$13,000,000; gold, \$8,000,000; furs (figures missing).

The statements were read orally and the teacher asked the children to recall what they knew of the purchase of Alaska and the comments made at the time concerning it. Then she asked the children to state the question which the facts on the board made them ask. Several questions were

asked and the following one was accepted as the best and written on the board as the problem for the study of Alaska.

Did Alaska prove to be a good bargain?

The meaning of the word bargain was discussed, and children, by way of defining it, drew from their knowledge of bargain sales in the stores.

Then followed a discussion of the information needed in order to answer the problem. Topics for study were listed on the board. References were marked and ready for use and each child was assigned his topic and directed to use his text and then his references. The children read material giving information concerning the following topics:

Climate of Alaska
Surface features
Natural resources

Transportation facilities
People
Industries
Trade

The study was well done. The children had excellent references from which they acquired a great deal of valuable and interesting information. The topics were well covered. There was time for reports on four of the topics; the others were left for the next geography period and were to be prepared by all members of the class. The topics reported on were summarized roughly and left to be put into better shape for the development of a chart on Alaska.

The supervisor felt that there were many gains for the children from the experience. They had gained much information. They were developing good habits of study in so far as they searched for specific information and organized it about specific topics. They selected and eliminated with relation to a definite idea. They checked their information by using several sources and showed respect for fact and for the authenticity of their sources.

All this the supervisor told the teacher. Then she asked her if it were not good policy in problem-solving to keep the problem before the children and to summarize its solution as parts were completed, in order to keep the thinking straight and the organization right. The teacher thought it a good thing to do but said she neglected to do so this time because of lack of time. The supervisor then told her that she was interested to know how she was going to direct the material that the children were gathering so that it would solve the problem.

That led the teacher to an examination of the problem and the outline which was supposed to answer it. She decided that a discussion of climate, surface features, natural resources, could not in themselves tell whether Alaska was a bargain or not.

The supervisor asked her if she thought that the problem as worded grew out of statements which the children had been asked to use in the formulation of a problem.

She thought it did, and did not understand why the supervisor questioned it. Then the supervisor wrote on the board:

I bought a farm for \$6,000. My yearly income from it amounts to

\$30,000 from potatoes

12,000 from corn

7,000 from lumber

"What would you ask me, should I tell you such a story? Would you ask 'Was the farm a bargain?'"

The teacher answered, "No, I would ask, 'What did you do to it to make it yield so much?'"

The following questions were then discussed:

1. Did the children really discern an incompleteness or incongruity which led them to question? Did they not instead reach the conclusion that Alaska was a good bargain, and then turn that conclusion into the question they were expected to ask?

The figures used gave facts for a conclusion and not for a question.

2. Did you attempt to answer the accepted question yourself?

It is an arithmetic problem for which you must supply the data. The logical solution is in terms of money. The question grows out of a money comparison. Its answer is the excess of present valuation proceeds over the amount invested.

Did you find out how much money the United States has spent on Alaska in addition to the \$7,200,000? How much has been spent on roads and railroads in order to get into the country, and to open up the mines? How much has it cost to develop the fisheries, for instance?

3. Do you consider a problem of such scope to be on fifth-grade level?

4. What other facts might have been used to help children sense the fact that in spite of unfavorable conditions of climate and the predictions of the people of 1867, Alaska is a very valuable possession of the United States, and cause them to ask, "Why?" or "How?"

The supervisor and teacher then examined the references for such facts and listed the following statements:

1. The United States bought Alaska from Russia in 1867 for \$7,200,000.

2. Alaska has paid for itself many times each year since.

3. Alaska contains 590,884 square miles, more than twice the size of Texas.

The population of Alaska is 54,899, about one person to 10 square miles.

4. Alaska lies nearly as far north as Greenland, part of it being north of

the Arctic Circle. In interior Alaska a temperature of fifty or more degrees below zero is common in winter. Some of the largest glaciers of the world cover the mountain slopes and fill the valleys.

A good problem for the study of Alaska can be made from the first two statements; a more comprehensive one can be made from a study of the four groups.

In the three foregoing examples there is objective analysis of what the teacher needed. The need in each case was at first not recognized by the teacher, but, during the conference with the supervisor, the need was recognized by the teacher and clearly defined. The kind of analytical observation and impersonal discussion here demonstrated cannot be accomplished by a novice. Nor does it come solely as the result of experience. Besides knowing what children should learn and how they learn, and besides having an insight into the techniques of supervision, a questioning and analytical attitude of mind is required. Practice does not make perfect unless it is the right kind of practice. The conscientious student of teaching who is well trained, who has had the right kind of practice, and who is well informed in the important matter of investigations, experiments, and tests, constantly questions the value of what he sees, even when seemingly it is sound procedure.

The question is sometimes asked, "How can a supervisor give information to a person who doesn't know he needs it, or skill to one who doesn't know he lacks it?" The three foregoing conferences go far toward answering this question. Objective evidence was produced; the need was clearly defined; the points discussed by supervisor and teacher were so well organized as to produce conviction; the conference was friendly, sympathetic, and tactful.

Summary. To meet the individual needs of teachers through personal conferences requires much previous preparation on the part of a supervisor. Some of this preparation may have been received during a summer course at the university; some of it may have come from long periods of independent study. Perhaps the

supervisor has spent a week of intensive preparation in order to give requested help; or it may be that, in order to meet an emergency, he has made a lightninglike review of much information gained through study and experience. He must be able to adjust himself to teachers in various stages of development. If he is to visit a new teacher about whom he knows nothing except that she is certified to teach, he bears in mind the strength and the weakness that may be expected of one with her degree of training, and prepares to give help or encouragement in terms which the teacher can understand. If he is to visit a teacher whose ability, professional spirit, and personality are known, he meets her on a basis of mutual confidence and prepares to give suggestions and opportunities that will be helpful in advancing her to a higher teaching level.

A day spent by the supervisor in different classrooms may call for adjustment to a wide variety of situations. Here he sees exceptionally fine teaching that calls for commendation and guidance toward further professional growth; there he sees unexpectedly poor work that may startle him into a painstaking search for underlying causes in order that he may judge fairly and offer intelligent help. Again, if the supervisor's visit is a long one, it is not unusual to see a range of classroom management and instruction that will tax his powers of critical analysis to the limit. He may observe spelling "called" and reading "heard" in an orderly room where children know how to behave regardless of ventilation, temperature, physical comfort, or proper lighting. Or he may see an excellent tidbit of teaching sandwiched into an otherwise sorry performance. Fortunately, there is nearly always something that may be called "good" under the circumstances, and it is well to keep this in mind in view of the forthcoming conference with the teacher. Often the supervisor is called upon to recognize and make allowance for abnormal classroom procedures due to an overanxious teacher's desire to appear well, to the sensitive teacher's self-consciousness, to the nervous teacher's confusion amounting almost to mental paralysis, to the

physical unfitness of teacher or pupil, or to the weather. No teacher can feel comfortable when being observed by her supervisor unless she feels that the supervisor *understands*, which is merely another way of saying that the supervisor can mentally put himself in the teacher's position.

Not infrequently it happens that when the supervisor observes ineffective teaching procedures, or a poor use of a good teaching device, or ignorance of the simplest fundamental principles, he feels that he can best help the teacher by a demonstration preparatory to a conference. He may become a participant in the lesson as a pupil, or as an assistant teacher, or as an emergency director. In any event, he is most careful not to reflect discredit or embarrassment upon the teacher. The supervisor's task is to be helpful in a way that meets the needs of that particular teacher and his reflection should be something like this: "Miss ——— needs a certain kind of assistance; second, she is able to help herself so far; third, I can best help her in this way." No amount of training, experience, or planning will enable the supervisor to arrive at any one of these conclusions previous to his observation of the individual teacher to be helped. But, whatever the quality of the teaching observed, his notes and his thinking should embrace these three steps. Competent though he may be, the supervisor cannot always arrive at them immediately; several hours of earnest reflection may be necessary; authorities may have to be consulted; but, if he is to measure up to his high privileges, he must be willing to put forth every effort which professional leadership requires.

It follows that, if a supervisor has carefully prepared for classroom visiting, has observed classroom activities as objectively and analytically as he is capable of doing, and has organized his ideas in the light of educational principles, he will be genuinely helpful in the ensuing conference with the teacher. He is not a dictator who says, "Do this or that" blindly. He is not a credulous being who merely expects the teacher to do better in the future. Nor is he an unjustly impatient taskmaster unable to

make allowances for human frailties. Realizing that it takes time as well as opportunity for a teacher to grow, he and the teacher think together while he establishes reasons for change of procedure or use of device. In a tactful and sympathetic way he approaches errors due to ignorance; he arouses ambitions that lead to progress; and with kind positiveness he shows that fairness and justice to children and to one's profession demand that a teacher measure up to her potentialities. His supervision contemplates teachers who will respect scientific procedures, who will be self-analytical, resourceful, and independent.

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CHAPTER IX

PLANNING GROUP MEETINGS TO FIT THE NEEDS OF TEACHERS

Group teachers' meetings similar to class teaching. Teachers have not only individual needs to be met by the supervisor, but they also have collective needs that group themselves around various problems, and may, for the economy of supervisory effort and time, be treated through group meetings. Just as the classroom teacher plans her program to care for the individual and group needs of her pupils, so the supervisor cares for the individual and collective problems of her teachers. The classroom teacher not only provides group activities that are designed to promote the physical, mental, and social growth of all her pupils, but she also carefully considers the fact that according to the varying levels of individual differences the pupils may be served in small homogeneous groups and need not always be given individual teaching. In the schoolroom situation we find as individual types of children the dull and the bright, the lazy and the industrious, the morose and the cheerful, the selfish and the generous, the pupils from the exceedingly poor and the exceedingly good home environment. The classroom teacher endeavors to develop each pupil in accordance with his particular aptitudes and abilities.

In a similar way the supervisor finds variants among his teaching staff and seeks to find the specific problems of his teachers.

During the classroom visit the supervisor gives individual instruction based on the needs of a particular teacher. At a teachers' meeting the supervisor does group teaching based upon the common needs of a group of teachers. Thus we find that a teachers' meeting is in many respects analogous to a classroom

recitation. With this idea in mind, a number of supervisors, in an effort to professionalize more highly their teachers' meetings, have adopted the criterion, "Every teachers' meeting a skillful teaching act." This criterion interpreted means that the teachers' meeting must contain all the elements that contribute to the effectiveness of a good lesson.

The basis of teacher groups for conference purposes. In planning meetings for groups of teachers, the following problems must be anticipated by the supervisor:

Does the criterion, "Every teachers' meeting a skillful teaching act," call for the homogeneous grouping of teachers? Is geographical area a factor in determining the character of teachers' meetings? To what extent is the similarity or the dissimilarity of individuals in the group a factor? Will the teachers' meeting be more fruitful if groups with similar needs and interests are brought together? What is a good working group from the standpoint of numbers?

In the past it has rather been assumed that the more formal teachers' institute should be the meeting at which teachers over a larger geographical area assemble. The smaller teachers' meeting has purposed to cover the needs of teachers within the limits of a small area. Too often the county has seemed too large a unit to serve as a selective basis for teachers' meetings. Transportation routes do not always converge at the county seat. Teachers living at opposite ends of the county may not have common interests and common problems. Small groups can more readily assume the character of round table discussions. There are many difficulties that tend to work against the frequent assembling of teachers from all parts of the county for conferences. On the other hand, common interests and common problems are not determined by county boundaries. Area, alone, can never serve adequately as a basis for the selection of teachers to make up a group meeting. The city, too, with its relatively restricted area, must provide opportunity for a wide variety of teachers' meetings.

Nevertheless, it is easy to set up classifications of group teachers' meetings on the basis of area. Pittman¹ created the zone plan of supervision and restricted the zone to the territorial unit that could reasonably serve as the area for one week of supervisory effort. The purpose of his plan was to provide for convenient, effective, and democratic teachers' meetings, as well as to provide for systematic supervision of classroom instruction.

In some states, notably Indiana, the group meetings are organized by townships, usually for the study of reading-circle books. In other states, Virginia and North Carolina, for example, certain schools are selected as centers and teachers are assigned to meetings at the nearest center.

Although area must be given consideration in the organization of group teachers' meetings, it is not a factor of primary importance, and should not be given too much attention in determining where a teacher shall be assigned for help in teachers' meetings.

The needs of teachers in one-room schools are usually different from the needs of teachers in large graded schools; the interests of teachers of the primary grades are different from the interests of teachers of the grammar grades. In the departmentalized grades of the elementary school and in the high school there are teachers who teach only a limited group of subjects. Moreover, most supervisors have to deal with teachers who differ widely in native ability, in training, and in attitude toward their work.

It seems evident, therefore, that in making plans for a series of teachers' meetings, one should consider the personnel of the group. Pittman² has said that the ideal attributes for a teachers' meeting are equality, fraternity, and participation. These attributes are not sufficiently in evidence where the teaching situations are unlike, where professional equipments are very dis-

¹ Marvin S. Pittman, *The Value of School Supervision* (Warwick & York, 1925), p. 30.

² Marvin S. Pittman, *Successful Teaching in Rural Schools* (American Book Co., 1922), p. 24.

similar or unequal, and where the purposes of the teachers are very divergent.

Studies have been made to ascertain the extent to which size of class affects the results of teaching. Such studies suggest the advisability of considering such questions as the following: Is the size of the group a factor at a teachers' meeting? Can better discussion be obtained with a group of more than one hundred teachers or with a group of thirty? Is a group of from eight to ten teachers too small? How may better thinking and expression be promoted? What is the best size for a working group of teachers? Undoubtedly, the smaller the group the more informal the discussion. In small groups it is easy for everyone to participate. In small groups students are more inclined to say what they really think.

It would seem, therefore, that the size of the group of teachers affects the type of discussion and the amount of participation per individual.

In a first-grade class of from thirty to forty pupils, the teacher deals with all the pupils when she teaches them a song, when she talks to them about birds and trees, when she teaches a lesson in hygiene, when she reads a story, or when the class is having rhythmic exercises. She divides them into groups, however, for their reading lessons and for their number work.

It would seem, therefore, that the size of the working group of teachers should be determined in large measure by the purpose of the meeting.

Frequency, time, place, and length of teachers' meetings. When the personnel of the group of teachers and the size of the group have been considered, there is the question of frequency of meetings, length of meetings, and time and place of meetings.

In a number of cities, meetings are held from four to five o'clock, beginning promptly and ending promptly. But that does not seem to be a very advantageous time for meetings. If teachers are to do real thinking on real problems (why have a teachers' meeting, if not for that purpose?) a time should be selected when

teachers are not tired. They are likely to be very tired from four to five o'clock.

In certain of the Maryland counties, where teachers' meetings are extremely fruitful of accomplishment, they are held on school days. Sometimes there is an all-day meeting, from 9:30 A.M. to 3:30 P.M. More often there is an afternoon meeting from one to four o'clock. Teachers seem to have a better attitude toward meetings if these are not held on Saturday. A more definite responsibility for the success of the meetings is evidenced by teachers when the meetings are made part of the regular teaching day. When parents objected that it was not "tending to business" to close school for a teachers' meeting, this newer procedure was justified on the ground that what the teachers carried back to their pupils from the teachers' meeting was usually of more value to pupils than what these pupils would have gained had they remained in school all day; and that the loss of *one* occasional half-day of learning on the part of the pupils seemed to produce no visible results. The minimum school year of 180 days in Maryland also helps to insure adequate schooling and to guarantee to a school community that teachers, from the standpoint of time, are not neglecting their work. The evening, from seven-thirty to ten o'clock, is also a favorable time for thinking and working together if teachers can be assembled then. Often these evening meetings may include the parents and special lessons can be taught to show the various purposes and methods that teachers are trying to achieve. But if the evening meeting is only for the teachers, it is not always possible to request pupils to be present for observation lessons. On the whole, the daytime meeting seems to bring the most benefit to teachers.

Types of teachers' meetings. There are various types of professional teachers' meetings. One of the most effective types is the meeting at which specially planned teaching takes place under supervised observation and is followed by an analysis of the lesson or lessons observed. At least once each year every teacher should be afforded an opportunity to see lessons in the subjects

and grades she herself teaches. It is better, however, not to observe too many lessons at one time, or at least not to attempt the analyses of too many lessons, otherwise the discussion may lose focus or may be scattered over too large an area and the teachers may leave with a feeling of having seen much attempted and little accomplished. More important still is it that teachers be given time to discuss and understand what they observe. On the whole, one might safely say that the usual teachers' meeting undertakes too much rather than too little. It should be the goal of every supervisor that his teachers go back to their school-rooms and teach good lessons, not from imitation or suggestion, but because they understand the idea or ideal involved in the lesson.

1. *The observation and discussion of lessons.* The observation lesson provides an opportunity for intelligent discussion of basic theories and psychology involved in the lesson observed. It gives concrete illustration of the abstract theory expounded in group meetings and presented in the bulletins, reprints, and mimeographed sheets distributed to teachers throughout the year. Some people have the ability to grasp a method through verbal descriptions, but many individuals are so constituted that they must be shown how to apply a principle. It is also true that many individuals observe very inaccurately. For this reason a simple outline should be in the hands of teachers, to aid them in their observation and to guide them in taking such notes as they will need in discussing the lesson procedures critically.

The following assignment for an afternoon teachers' meeting was made by a county supervisor,³ and brought good results:

Plan a lesson in fifth-grade history on the cities of Greece. Include these steps in your plan:

1. A statement of the topic, subject, or problem of the lesson.
2. Telegraphic statement or statements of old experiences, information, or knowledge bearing on the lesson which you wish to elicit from the class.

³ Ruth DeVore, "Supervisory Activities in Maryland," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 3 (September, 1928), pp. 50-51.



Prince George's County, Maryland.

LIVING THE LIVES OF DUTCH CHILDREN.

A group of primary-grade teachers assembled in Margaret Footen's classroom at Hyattsville to see the summarizing lesson of a unit on "Life in Holland" with a second-grade class.



Frederick County, Maryland.

CHARACTER DOLLS MADE AT A TEACHERS' MEETING.

A group of teachers met at the invitation of the supervisor, Hal Lee Ott, to learn ways of making the primary social studies work period more effective.

3. Important questions you expect to ask the class to secure the information which they will obtain from studying the text.
4. A short, concise summary of the main facts of the lesson.
5. The home assignment.
6. A short test based on the lesson to see whether its main facts have been understood.

We shall observe a lesson on the cities of Greece taught to a fifth-grade class. The critique will be organized around these questions:

1. What type of lesson was this? Support your opinion by evidence.
2. Give the steps in the lesson. Was each step essential? Give reasons for answer.
3. Was this a *teaching* or a *hearing* lesson, or did it contain elements of both? Give proof for your judgment.
4. What difficulties presented themselves to the class? To the teacher? Were they recognized? Were they overcome? If so, how?
5. Are children being trained to think? Give proof for your opinion.
6. Were all the facts of the lesson of equal value to the class? Give proof for your opinion.
7. Was the assignment a continuation of the lesson? Should it have been?

Another county supervisor in order to get adequate preparation for a teachers' meeting sent out the following letter:⁴

An all-day conference of the primary teachers (Grades 1, 2, and 3) of all schools with two or more teachers will be held at Hampstead School, October 22, at 10 o'clock. The program is here outlined.

- I. Demonstration in First-Grade Reading and Seatwork—Miss ———.
- Section A. Silent reading—following directions:

1. Completing sentences
2. Dramatizing—action reading

Section B. Teaching a new lesson.

Section C. Silent reading—following directions:

1. Matching words and colors
2. Matching sentences and pictures
3. Matching numbers and pictures
4. Drawing

⁴ Lula Crim, "A Supervisor of Town Schools Analyzes Her Work," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 8, No. 3 (October, 1926), pp. 19-21.

II. Literature lessons.

1. Mother Goose party. Grade 1A—Miss _____.
This is entirely the work of the children (stage setting, stage properties, costumes, dramatization).
2. Teaching children how to tell a story. Grade 1B—Miss _____.
3. Dramatizing a story. Grade 3. While the pupils of the third grade are out of the room working out their dramatization, pupils of the second grade will give short literary selections.
4. Literary selections, Grade 2.

Bible Story
Psalm

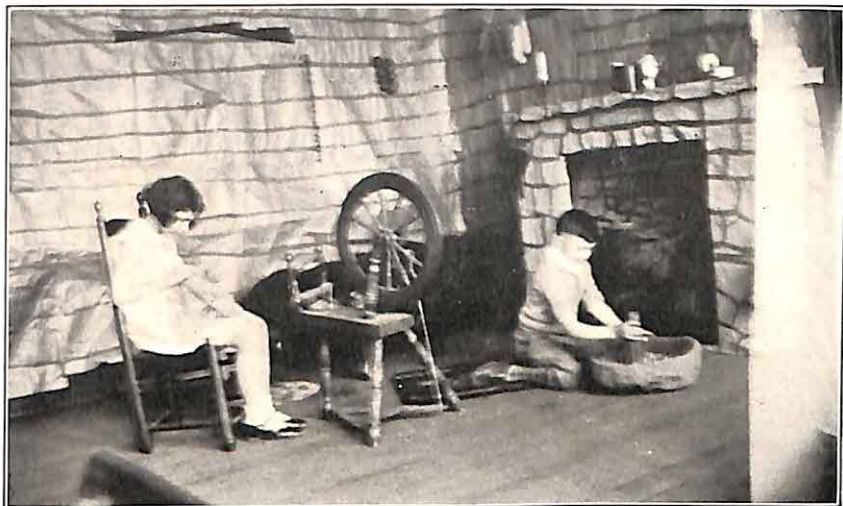
Poems

Fables
Jingles

III. Lunch. This may be had at the school cafeteria at small cost.

IV. Critique of the lessons will be based on the following questions:

1. Teaching a new lesson to Section 1B.
 - A. (1) Name in order the steps in the procedure of this lesson. (2) Give the reasons for this order. (3) Would you have followed another procedure? Explain.
 - B. Was each step sufficiently well mastered by the group before another step was taken up? Illustrate from the lesson in every case.
 - C. (1) What principles of good teaching did you observe? Illustrate each one from the lesson. (2) What principles of good teaching were violated? Illustrate.
 - D. (1) Was the assignment a good one? Illustrate each point. (2) Was it weak in any way? Illustrate. (3) Would you have given a different one? Reasons for answer.
 - E. (1) What good habits and attitudes are being built up? Illustrate each point. (2) What bad ones?
2. The seatwork assignments in Grade 1.
 - A. Evaluate assignments given both groups. Illustrate each point.
 - B. (1) What good habits and attitudes are being built up? Illustrate each. (2) Did you see any poor habits and attitudes being built up? Explain.
3. The lessons in literature, Grades 1, 2, 3.
 - A. How to tell a story.
 - (1) (a) Give the steps in the procedure, in order. (b) Did this order observe the principles of good teaching? Illustrate each point. (c) Did each step get the desired results? Prove your answer.



Allegany County, Maryland.

A COLONIAL HOME IN A CORNER OF THE CLASSROOM.

At a teachers' meeting a group of teachers were asked by the supervisor to evaluate the activities in several classrooms such as the four shown here. In the above picture fifth-grade children are reliving Colonial life.



Allegany County, Maryland.

IMPRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

"From Soil to Milk Bottle" was the way these children told their story of dairying in the United States. This picture represents one part of the unit on "Domesticated Animals."



Allegheny County, Maryland.

JUVENILE RESEARCH.

The "Westward Movement" with its delightful history of the pioneers has the undivided interest of these boys and girls.



Allegheny County, Maryland.

HISTORY IS MORE THAN A MERE BOOK SUBJECT.

The Conestoga wagon, the pioneer's home, the plaited rug, the home made quilt give evidence of unusual interest in the unit on "Westward Movement."

B. Classic wholes.

- (1) Is this a good type of check-up on reading a book for pleasure?
- (2) What are the immediate and final benefits to the child in studying them?
- (3) What types of poems should be *read* only? What types should be *memorized*?
- (4) What steps precede memorization of a poem? Why?

V. Assignments for this meeting.

1. Points in your own teaching:

- A. Be able to name many good principles of teaching. Notice these in your teaching day by day.
- B. Be able to tell all the points in a good assignment. See if your assignments take care of these.
- C. What habits and attitudes are you trying to build up in your children?

2. Planning a lesson:

- A. What is the central idea in the poem "The Child's World," page 183, in the *Elson Fourth Reader* (revised)?
- B. How would you introduce the study of this poem?
- C. How would you motivate it?
- D. What steps would you take in teaching it?
- E. Memorize it.

NOTE—Hand in answers to questions A, B, C, and D (relative to the poem) in writing, to the supervisor, at 10 o'clock.

VI. Assignment for the next meeting.

Make a list of the goals in English that your grade or grades reach by the end of the year. Arrange these goals under two heads: (1) Oral language habits to be fixed, (2) Written language habits to be fixed. Send these lists into the office by December 1.

The meeting at which lessons are observed and discussed stands out preëminently as a type of meeting characterized by purposing, planning, executing, and judging. When lessons are taught by teachers who are especially skillful, and analyzed by a group of teachers under the guidance of a skillful supervisor, the professional conscience of the group is quickened; the technique of the group is refined.

2. *The discussion of problems of classification and promotion.*

A distinct type of teachers' meeting is that held for the purpose of considering problems of classification and promotion. A study was recently made by a county supervisor of the number of over-age children in the various grades of twenty large schools and of the large number of children enrolled in the first and second grades as contrasted with the number enrolled in the seventh and eighth grades. This investigation was followed by discussions with teachers in large and small groups in an effort to locate the causes of over-ageness and to remedy the conditions resulting from such pupil classification. Promotions were surveyed over a four-year period. After studying the factors responsible for slow progress—incorrect classification, varying standards for promotion, poor attendance, and poor teaching—the teachers adopted definite standards for promotion, which are rapidly remedying the situation in the county.

A supervisor⁵ in another county thus reports a discussion meeting for the purpose of considering causes of retardation.

At a meeting in March, methods for taking care of the slow and backward child were discussed. The following data and questions provided a basis for discussion.

PER CENT OF OVER-AGE WHITE PUPILS IN MARYLAND COUNTIES

SCHOOLS	ALL ELEMENTARY	ONE-TEACHER	TWO-TEACHER	GRADED
State average (1925) .	27.8	34.0	29.6	24.9
Dorchester (1925) ...	30.0	39.1	25.8	26.4
Dorchester (1927) ...	28.4	33.7	31.6	25.1
My school or room

1. Have I made an effort to interest all classes of children?

a. When planning my work, did I plan the unit carefully and make provision for at least two levels on which the work could be done?

⁵ Hazel Fisher, "Supervisory Activities in Maryland," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 3 (September, 1928), pp. 26-27.

A county supervisor thus reports her activities following a testing program:⁶

As soon as the October testing was over and the results tabulated, the teachers and supervisor in Caroline County began the diagnosis of errors which had been revealed in the reading and arithmetic tests.⁷

Each teacher was given the test papers of her pupils and was asked to make a study of the chief causes of failures and to summarize these under definite headings. She was told to record the frequencies of each error in order to determine where the greatest per cent of errors fell.

A summary sheet for listing types of errors in paragraph meaning found in the test was mimeographed and distributed as a guide for the teachers and from its plan they originated similar sheets which would itemize the types of errors they found in the standard arithmetic test. These summary sheets—one for reading errors and one for arithmetic errors—were returned to the supervisor who in turn made a county tabulation as a basis for plans for remedial work. All this was in preparation for the November meeting.

Previous to the meeting, the supervisor was able to send out this message:

The diagnosis of test papers reveals the following:

A. Chief reading errors and their frequency expressed in per cent:

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. Inability to understand difficult sentences | 49 per cent |
| 2. Lack of comprehension due to inadequate vocabulary | 19 per cent |
| 3. Overpotency of certain elements | 10 per cent |
| 4. Careless expression of pupils' answers | 8 per cent |
| 5. Preconceived ideas | 4 per cent |
| 6. Irrelevant answers | 3 per cent |
| 7. Using words not synonymous as if they were | 2 per cent |
| 8. Failure to follow directions | 2 per cent |
| 9. Other types, unclassified | 3 per cent |

B. Chief arithmetic errors and their frequency expressed in per cent:

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. Superficial reading—modifying conditions of problem not
noted carefully | 51 per cent |
| Example: No. 14. Counted 2 fares instead of 3 | |
| No. 25. Did not allow 2 days for return | |

⁶ Katharine L. Healy, "A Year's Supervision of Elementary Instruction in Caroline County," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 6, No. 5 (January, 1925), pp. 9-13.

⁷ *The Stanford Achievement Test*—an abridged edition containing Tests 1, 3, 5, Forms A and B—was used.

2. Incorrect reasoning of problem. Ex.—No. 11, No. 12, No. 21. .14 per cent
3. Inaccuracies in processes (especially in addition and multiplication, as No. 9, No. 13, No. 19, No. 20)12 per cent
4. Omission of problems—apparent lack of comprehension, or ineffective attempts 8 per cent
5. Careless recording of answers (failure to reduce fraction; failure to include decimal point, etc.) 4 per cent
6. Lack of knowledge of everyday facts (tables of measure, etc.). 3 per cent
7. Omission of final zero in quotient 2 per cent
8. Other scattered errors totaled approximately 6 per cent

Assignment for November meeting:

1. a. What type of lesson should you plan to help overcome our greatest weakness in arithmetic problem-solving?
b. What series of lessons would you plan?
c. Come prepared to outline your procedure.
2. In your silent reading bulletin find two types of corrective work which would help to increase the pupils' vocabulary. Select a paragraph and prepare questions for intensive study on that paragraph with your pupils.

The meeting was held two weeks after the teachers had received the above information and assignment. All teachers came with a definite purpose—the discussion of certain selected topics in reading and arithmetic. Several teachers had been especially notified to come prepared to assume, if necessary, the complete responsibility for a given topic, and to prepare mimeographed copies of any paragraph selected for intensive study; others had been asked to raise pertinent questions for discussion regarding remedial work. In choosing those who were to assume responsibility for discussion it proved wise to include on the program one or two of the well tried and finest in the group, and one or two of the most capable beginners with good training though little teaching experience. The purpose of this was three-fold: the teacher of superior merit set a standard, the beginning teacher followed good leadership, and the remaining teachers were so stimulated by the participation of the others, whether adepts or novices, that they, too, were eager to have a common share in the discussion.

The morning program was used for arithmetic discussion; the afternoon program for reading.

Arithmetic Topics

- a. The material of arithmetic problems handled for training lessons in comprehension—pivotal and factual questions
- b. Word meaning drills on the vocabulary of arithmetic problems. Vocabulary tests

- c. Reports on pupils' plans of solving problems
(The making of a chart indicating steps in problem solving. This chart was printed and subsequently posted in each room)
- d. The value of problems without numbers
- e. The use of the formula without actually working the problem
- f. The "test between tests" to measure weekly or monthly growth on type questions. (See form below. This was given to each teacher. Sample questions for the grades accompanied the form.)

Indefiniteness of purpose results in immeasurable waste. Often when informal achievement tests in arithmetic are rated, they show failure. What a teacher does or does not do at this point measures her success or failure as a teacher. What she should do is to look upon this test as an opportunity to locate her weakness in teaching. She should analyze the whole group of papers, problem by problem, to determine the frequency of failure in each problem. Next she should analyze these problems to determine the greatest obstacle. Knowing the greatest obstacle, she should group her class and plan definite series of lessons to overcome that difficulty. Then continuing in order of frequency, she should handle each type of error in turn. Finally, she should retest with parallel problems to measure the pupils' growth as well as her skill in teaching. With this in mind the following suggestions were offered as a guide to teachers in conducting remedial work in problem-solving.

Suggestions for Remedial Work in Problem-Solving

1. Choose several problems which contain type difficulties. (Five sample problems were given by supervisor.) Be sure that each problem has some distinct difference from the others.
 2. Give the problems as a test to your class, recording results on a class roll (in space provided for Test I).
- Example:

Pupils' Names			Problems Wrong						
			No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	No. 4	No. 5	No. 6	Etc.
M. Brown	Test I					X			
	Test II								
H. Smith	Test I								
	Test II							X	

3. List reasons why pupils failed on problem in Test I.

No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	No. 4	No. 5	No. 6	Etc.
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------

4. Locate greatest difficulty as determined by number who failed on that problem. (Indicate by cross marks in the various columns.)
 - a. According to their needs, group pupils for corrective work.
 - b. Definitely plan a series of lessons to overcome weaknesses. (Be sure to include sufficient drill.)
5. Retest after your corrective work (of a week or two weeks).
 - a. Use parallel problems involving the same type of difficulties as your first test. Call this Test II.
 - b. Record your results in space reserved for Test II on your roll. Compare results with those of Test I.
(In each case No. 1 stands for same type of question as in Test I, etc.)
6. In case failures still occur continue with those types of work which are difficult. Teach. Retest.
7. For purpose of record and for a study of your class, summarize your corrective work, including such points as:
 - a. Problems used in first test and in second test
 - b. Kind of corrective work
 - c. Methods employed in overcoming difficulties
 - d. Some record of time element
8. Do not overlook the value of graphs which will show pupils how they are growing in ability to solve problems.

The outcome of this plan was that teachers worked with greater economy of time and effort and challenged themselves to do more skillful teaching.

Reading Topics

- a. Training exercises which are designed to further pupils' ability to follow directions:
 1. Oral directions—oral responses
 2. Written directions—oral responses
 3. Written directions—written responses
- b. Training exercises which are designed to increase pupils' vocabulary:
 1. Dictionary training exercises
 2. Synonyms and association drills
 3. Classification and grouping of words
- c. Training exercises in organization of material:
 1. Teacher's recitation from topics
 2. Pupil's recitation from topical outlines prepared by teacher
 3. Pupil's preparation of topical outlines

Instruction in what an outline should include and how it should be expressed

d. Training exercises which provide an opportunity for reasoning:

1. Not *what*, but *why* questions
2. Comparison questions which require rational thinking

Immediately following this meeting, definitely organized remedial work progressed in practically every classroom. The teachers seemed to have something tangible.

4. *Conferences with principals.* In counties where there are a large number of consolidated schools, a great deal of responsibility devolves upon the principals, whose problems are manifold. It is advisable that meetings be held with these principals so that they may be more intelligent concerning the work of their assistants and better able to exercise the leadership that their important position demands.

In many states the county superintendent calls during the year a number of principals' meetings where administrative, supervisory, and instructional problems are discussed. These are important agencies of supervision, for through them the superintendent can do a great deal to raise the general level of instruction in his supervisory district. Principals in the smaller schools and often in the larger schools know little about the technique of supervision. They have been promoted to their positions after a few years of teaching and usually have had but little training and less experience in directing the work of teachers. Group meetings of principals aid in unifying the county supervisory program and assist inexperienced principals in solving the difficult problems that constantly confront them.

Demonstration teaching, also, is done before groups of principals. They are furnished with a blank form for their use in analyzing and evaluating the lesson observed. Such a procedure should prove valuable in setting up standards of classroom teaching that can be used for the measurement of teaching methods in the schools under their supervision.

To indicate the character of a principals' meeting reports from supervisors in two different counties are here included.

The meeting was held in one of our newest schools where we tried to exemplify many of the standards required of a large consolidated school. The theme of our meeting was "The Principal as a Leader." The following questions of interest to the whole group were sent to each principal before the meeting. Principals were asked to come prepared to analyze and discuss these and any other common problems.

1. How do you keep a good wholesome professional spirit among your teachers?
2. How do you develop a courteous atmosphere among the children throughout the grades, on the playground, in the classroom, on the bus or car, on the sidewalk, in public meetings?
3. What portion of your time do you spend in the classrooms of your teachers, and for what purposes?
4. How often do you hold faculty meetings and what is the nature of them?
5. Are you conscious of the seatwork results obtained in the various classrooms? Are you guiding the work so as to have uniform school standards?
6. Do your teachers from grade to grade follow the same method of teaching such subjects as spelling, writing, and so on? Should they follow the same method?
7. Are you planning to enrich your school library this year? In what way?
8. What is your music program for the year? Would you be interested in a music memory contest in the spring?
9. How do you assist in the follow-up work done by the county health nurse?
10. How do you adjust your schedule to bus service?
11. How are your playgrounds supervised?
12. What is your athletic program and how have you arranged for its administration?
13. How are your classes divided when there is more than one teacher to a grade? Which division obtains better results—all the bright children in one group and the slow ones in another group, or a bright, average, and slow section for each teacher?
14. What part do you take in the parent-teacher meetings? Are parents kept informed of needs of the school?
15. How do you minimize the labor and time needed for statistical reports?

16. How do you and your teachers use the bulletins issued by the State Department of Education?

The group decided that upon the principals rested the duty of making the children better citizens; the teachers coöperative leaders; teaching, a profession; that the principal represented the policies of the county administration before his patrons; that the success or the failure of the system depended largely upon his educational insight, his largeness of vision, his ability in administration, his personal loyalty, his frankness in discussion, his tact, and his good nature.

The foregoing list of problems easily resolved themselves into various themes. Some dealt with the administrative side of the responsibility, some with the supervisory, and some with the civic. The first part of the period was taken in organizing these problems, and then the principals attempted to measure their schools and themselves in the light of these objectives.

Each topic was discussed from the point of view of what the principals were actually doing and the best that could be done in such a situation. Principals who were particularly strong in certain topics led the discussion, whereas the others contributed whenever they desired to do so. This made the meeting their own and one of 100 per cent participation.⁸

Another supervisor⁹ made the following assignment for a meeting of the principals in her county.

Come prepared with definite ideas on the suggested questions. Please be prepared to raise other problems.

- I. How much departmental work shall we have next year?

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of this system? (Miss Lockard)
2. How many subjects shall be departmentalized? In which grades? (Mr. Null)
3. What combination of subjects shall we have?
4. How long shall the periods be? Shall this vary in the grades? in the subjects? (Mrs. Lynch)
5. For what per cent of the school day do you have the pupils in the home room?

⁸ From the unpublished report of Ruth Parker, supervisor in Anne Arundel County, Maryland, to the state superintendent of schools.

⁹ Myrtle Eckhardt, "Supervisory Activities in Maryland," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 3 (September, 1928), pp. 75-76.

- II. What types of teachers' meetings shall we have in our schools?
1. When and how often shall they be held? (Mr. Vogtman)
 2. What type of work shall be discussed?
 - a. Study of a book. What? How? (Miss Manahan)
 - b. Demonstration lessons. How manage this activity? (Mr. Reck)
 - c. Testing and diagnosis of results.
 - d. Other types. (Miss Devilbiss)
- III. How may principals be held partly responsible for helping to reach the objectives set up each year?
- IV. What is the proper method of disciplining children who are troublesome, especially those who come on the busses? What regulations shall we adopt for children who travel on the busses?

References:

- CUBBERLEY, *The Principal and His School*, pp. 168-172.
The Elementary School Journal, September, 1927.

5. *Meetings concerned with the course of study.* There is no more profitable type of meeting than that concerned with the making or the revising of the course of study, or that designed to insure the proper interpretation and use of the course of study. The following assignment¹⁰ was sent in mimeographed form by a county supervisor to teachers of primary grades two weeks in advance of the meeting. It provided the basis for a vigorous discussion of the subject of language work in primary grades at a series of February meetings.

1. Objectives in Primary Grade Language Work
 - a. Read the objectives as listed in State Bulletin, "English Goals."
 - b. What danger, if any, is there in too definite and prescribed aims in subject matter? How do you decide the next step to take in your language work?
2. Means of Realizing Aims
 - a. Preservation of spontaneity in oral expression
 - (1) What are important factors in creating spontaneity in oral expression? List some possible grade schoolroom activities which might contribute to this type of situation. (Bring to meeting.)

¹⁰ Winifred Greene, "Side Lights on the Supervision of Primary Grades," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 9, No. 3 (December, 1927, pp. 56-58).

- (2) What should the teacher gain from this free expression of the child?
- (3) From this point of view where should language teaching appear on the daily program?

3. Rich Content in Language

- a. Upon what is growth of language ability primarily dependent?
- b. How can the school (the teacher primarily) stimulate this growth? Show in considerable detail actual schoolroom procedures which would bring about growth—consider teacher, child, schoolroom, equipment, supplies, and possible activities.

4. Meaningful Vocabulary

- a. How do words come to have meaning? May the same words come to have different meanings to the same individual?
- b. Should acquiring a vocabulary be a conscious or unconscious process to a ——— grade child?
- c. What is the teacher's part in building a meaningful vocabulary?
- d. What is the test of a person's speaking vocabulary?

5. Organizing Ideas

- a. What factors enter into the organization of ideas?
- b. What type of organization do we find developed in a ——— grade child?
- c. How may habits of organization be formed?
- d. Consider this last question from the viewpoint of dramatization, reproduction of stories, conversation, original stories, dictated records, and stories.

6. Breaking Up of Incorrect Speech Habits

- a. What is the source of incorrect speech habits? How strong is this influence compared with classroom influence?
- b. What is the psychology of breaking bad habits?
- c. Consider the breaking of incorrect speech habits from the following points of view:
 - (1) Trusting to imitation of teacher's example in use of correct English with constant correction of all mistakes as they occur
 - (2) Definitely and specifically working on a very limited number of the grosser errors
 - (3) Use of language games.

References:

Read at least one of the following references. All of these books may be obtained from office library.

MOORE, *The Primary School*, 124-129; Chs. iv, v; pp. 315-317; pp. 136-138; pp. 132-136; pp. 139-141.

PARKER and TEMPLE, *Unified Kindergarten and First Grade*, pp. 38-41, 54, 191-193; pp. 193-197; 217-224; Chs. ix; iv; pp. 208-209.

GESELL and GESELL, *The Normal Child and Primary Education*, Ch. x.
REYNOLDS, *A Course of Study in Terms of Children's Activities*.

It is noteworthy that the teachers had two weeks in which to prepare for this meeting. The problem to be discussed was announced and a number of questions growing out of this problem were presented. Pertinent references were cited and made available to teachers. A group of well trained teachers participated in this meeting. They had some lively arguments; they reached some valuable conclusions. They demonstrated the fact that the most valuable thing about the course of study to a group of teachers is the course of study *in the making*; the least valuable is the course of study *already made*.

6. *Meetings of high-school teachers.* In some counties high-school teachers are organized into separate groups classified in accordance with the subjects taught. The science teachers form one group, the English teachers another. At such group meetings demonstration lessons are presented, round table discussions are held, and frequently reference reading is done as a preparation for the meeting.

Country high schools have relatively small enrollments, and consequently, a small teaching staff. Usually there is not more than one science teacher, or one English teacher on the faculty. By bringing together all of the teachers of several high schools in the county, small groups with common interests can carry on round table discussions.

Principles underlying teachers' meetings. In the early part of the chapter attention was called to the slogan or criterion adopted by a number of highly professional supervisors; namely, "Every teachers' meeting a skillful teaching act." This section of the chapter undertakes to discuss ways and means by which

a teachers' meeting may exemplify the principles and procedures of a "skillful teaching act."¹¹

Skillful teaching is likely to be the result of skillful planning. Skillful planning means planning to some purpose. It would seem, therefore, that *the meeting must be carefully planned and carefully assigned—must be definite and purposeful*. A teachers' meeting that provides for purposing, planning, executing, and judging is a skillful teaching act, but it must be purposing, planning, executing, and judging on the part of both supervisor and teachers. A professional teachers' meeting is not alone the supervisor's project; it is the teachers' project as well. A teachers' meeting is not a unit within itself. It is part of the supervisor's work and part of the teachers' work. The purposing and planning have to begin long before the meeting. They have their inception in certain needs that are outstanding among the teachers. Most teachers know their own needs and weaknesses. The supervisor recognizes these needs, and a part of his job is to bring those teachers who do not seem to know their own needs to a realization of them. The teachers should help to organize the meeting by suggesting some of the problems to be discussed. Before the meeting they should try to organize their thoughts around these problems; they should participate in the solution of these problems.

A skillful supervisor realizes the needs of the teachers and devises means of meeting these needs. Let us accompany him as he visits some of the teachers.

In one class he notices that there is a lack of interesting and challenging educative seatwork activities. The teacher of this class admits that during the time between recitations she cannot keep the children occupied in a worth-while way.

In another classroom the supervisor notices that the children

¹¹ Jewell Simpson, "The Teachers' Meeting as an Instrument of Supervision in a County-Unit System," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 27, No. 3 (November, 1926), pp. 175-186.

are getting tidbits of knowledge in a haphazard fashion. This teacher admits that the pupils do not know how to study.

In a third classroom the supervisor notices that, although most of the children know their lesson, they are doing no real thinking and they apparently have little real interest in their work. There is no enthusiasm. This teacher admits that she needs help in organizing subject matter in large units around problems.

In still another classroom the supervisor notes the opposite condition. Here the children are solving problems that are related to a larger unit. The children are thinking; their attitude toward their work seems excellent. Some desirable "concomitants" are evident. The pupils, however, betray a meager knowledge of certain facts that they should have mastered in previous lessons. Nothing in particular is emphasized. This teacher admits that her lesson plan does not provide for review, drill, summary, or clinching—those elements that make for thoroughness in the learning process.

Of course, this skillful supervisor has given assistance to each teacher in the classrooms visited—assistance in the matter of educative seatwork, assistance in the matter of guiding children in right habits of study, assistance in the matter of problem-solving related to large units of subject matter, and assistance in the matter of guarding against lackadaisical teaching. That is not enough, however. He plans a teachers' meeting centered around a problem based on the needs common to these teachers, namely, "How may we plan our daily work so as to make our teaching more effective?" As part of the assignment for the meeting, the supervisor asks the teachers to consider questions such as these:

1. Do you believe in preparing daily for your work? Why?
2. What is a reasonable length of time to spend on such preparation?
3. Do you use a plan book? If so, bring it with you and be prepared to explain its value to the group.
4. What difference do you make in your thought on plans for the social studies as compared with plans for spelling and arithmetic?
5. Do you plan for more than a day's work at a time? Why?
6. Would there be an advantage in checking over your written notes of

preparation after having used them; in other words, is there an advantage in having an achievement record?

Of course, at the teachers' meeting this skillful supervisor keeps in mind the needs of individual teachers as well as the needs of the whole group of teachers. For example, one teacher may be encouraged to work particularly on finding and formulating, or guiding children to find and formulate, worth-while problems; another may be encouraged to work particularly on summaries—one type of summary at the beginning of a history lesson, other types of summaries to clinch small units in the course of the lesson, and still a different type of summary at the end.

Out of the meeting should develop and crystallize certain fundamental ideas and attitudes toward the planning of lessons, one idea being that a teacher should write into a lesson plan only what will be useful to her in her teaching. The degree of detail will depend on the subject to be taken up, on the teacher's familiarity with that subject, and on the particular needs of the teacher.

In the case of lesson plans, some teachers tend to substitute the form for the spirit. The thing to be avoided is a stereotyped, formal plan book. This means that the teachers' meeting must be carefully followed up. There must be a very close connection between the teachers' meeting and the follow-up work in the schools afterward.

Besides discovering the needs of teachers and thus finding problems for teachers' meetings during the course of classroom visits, the supervisor finds problems through other sources. At the first meeting of the year the teachers may decide on the year's objectives. Often one teachers' meeting suggests problems for another meeting. Teachers frequently make requests that certain work be given at a teachers' meeting. Another means of arriving at the needs of teachers is to study the results of standardized tests.

A teachers' meeting, then, if it is "a skillful teaching act," must

meet a second requirement, namely, *it must be organized around the needs of the teachers. There must be an apperceptive basis if the meeting is to be of real interest to the group.*

Some simple tests of interest and attention are: Do teachers pay attention? Do they ask questions? Do they seem bored? Do they take notes? Are they anxious to take away with them what the supervisor has to offer? Do they seem to have a feeling of responsibility toward the meeting? Are they ready to leave before the meeting has adjourned?

A teachers' meeting needs to habituate certain teacher attitudes, skills, and feelings. Certain principles and accepted procedures must be presented again and again at teachers' meetings so that they become ingrained in the consciousness of the teachers. For example, such things as these need to be habituated in their thinking: limiting the amount of oral reading in the upper grades; handling large primary classes in sections; drilling on phrases, not words; providing educative seat work, not busy work; teaching spelling as a tool of written language; avoiding the over-teaching of the appreciation lesson.

Supervisors recognize the importance of frequent recall in this matter of "making a teacher into a bundle of functioning habits."

To be a "skillful teaching act" a teachers' meeting must meet a third requirement, namely, *it must provide for free expression of opinion and for discussion by as many members of the group as possible—a maximum of teacher participation under the careful guidance of the supervisor.*

There are several methods of securing teacher participation. One method is by means of the assignment.

An outline of what is to take place at the meeting, an assignment of topics for a round table discussion, or a set of questions dealing with the course of study may be sent out in advance. Thus, teachers may be held responsible for more than mere attendance at the meeting. This precaution is absolutely essential to thoughtful reaction on their part.

An assignment may be made to an individual teacher, but, if

her name is placed on the program, sometimes the other teachers may not feel responsible for thinking through that particular part of the assignment. A meeting may be so carefully assigned, with certain leaders designated to introduce certain topics, that it is stereotyped so far as any discussion is concerned. Sometimes, on the other hand, unless certain leaders are designated to introduce certain topics, the meeting does not get very far.

Teachers can participate in teachers' meetings by discussing problems, by making committee and individual reports, by teaching lessons before the group, and by asking questions. They can participate by manifesting a critical attitude toward the suggestions of the group or of the supervisor and by judging of the value of such suggestions. They can participate by being able to accept criticism in the right spirit.

The last-mentioned method of participation may be a very high type, but this matter of criticism needs careful attention for obvious reasons. To be able to accept sincere criticism in an impersonal way is one measure of professional growth. In a teachers' meeting teachers should be free to express their opinions on the validity of the suggestions given. The suggestions supervisors give are not always practical.

After all, what is real teacher participation? For that matter, what is real pupil participation? Sometimes all the children in a class raise their hands at every question and manifest great eagerness to answer. Is that what is meant by pupil participation? The writer has attended teachers' meetings at which almost everyone talked, and it was agreed that there was "wonderful" participation although there was little contribution. If an individual talks but does not contribute, has he really participated in the meeting? If some remain quiet throughout the meeting, is not that sometimes better participation than aimless talk.

In the matter of teacher participation, the skill of the supervisor manifests itself in his method of handling the contributions, by the way in which he lets the members of the group handle one another's contributions, by the way in which he keeps the dis-

cussion to the point, by the way in which he helps teachers to shape and to summarize their own contributions. A skillful supervisor can often take a very poor contribution and, by sifting it or perhaps by padding it, make it into a worth-while one.

A fourth requirement for the teachers' meeting if it is to be a "skillful teaching act" is that *it must be related to what has preceded and it must lead on*—lead on by setting standards for better work, lead on by being a source of inspiration to the enthusiastic, wide-awake teacher, urging her to further effort. Do the teachers take away from the meeting more than they bring to it? Can a supervisor judge the success of the meeting by what the teachers get from it—by what he sees in his subsequent visits to them?

To achieve, then, the high standard, "Every teachers' meeting a skillful teaching act," the meeting (1) must be carefully planned and carefully assigned—must be definite and purposeful; (2) must be organized around the needs of the teachers and must have an apperceptive basis if it is to be of real interest to the group; (3) must provide for free expression of opinion and for discussion by as many members of the group as possible—a maximum of teacher participation under the careful guidance of the supervisor; (4) must be related to what has preceded and must lead on.

The supervisor who conducts his teachers' meetings in accordance with these standards is practicing democracy in supervision. His philosophy of education is primarily concerned with developing unity of zeal and purpose, not with developing uniformity of ideas and practices.

A few precautions concerning teachers' meetings. It may be well to suggest a few precautions concerning teachers' meetings. These precautions are in reality sign posts of procedure.

1. *Begin on time and close on time.*

2. *See to it that the meeting is pleasant.* If a teacher needs a reprimand, the superintendent should give it individually. Comparatively few of the force will need a scolding, and when a super-

intendent scolds the whole group, the ones who need it least are the ones who take it most to heart.

3. *Do not use the meeting for routine purposes that can be disposed of otherwise.* Since the educational world is alive with important problems, teachers' meetings should be conducted on a professional basis. Superintendents and supervisors should see to it that no time is wasted in these meetings.

4. *Do not permit two or three teachers to do all the talking.* Sometimes the teacher who has the most self-confidence has the fewest ideas; and the one who is the greatest talker is often the poorest thinker.

5. *Send out in advance a mimeographed brief to those who will be present.* This may be an outline of what is to take place; it may be an assignment of topics for a round table discussion; or it may be a set of theses that will be defended by the speaker. This insures that teachers are held responsible for more than mere attendance, and this precaution is absolutely essential to a thoughtful reaction on their part.

6. *Make the teachers feel that the meeting is an opportunity, and not just a requirement.* The topic must be a live one, something that is of interest to every teacher. This means that groups of teachers with similar needs and interests must be brought together. The school interests of high-school teachers and grade teachers are not identical. The interests of the teachers of primary grades are different from those of the grammar grades; the needs of the teachers of one-room schools are different from those of graded schools.

7. *The extent of teacher participation is the real test of a good group meeting.* The group should be stimulated to indulge in free discussion, to give and take argument, to search for and to evaluate data—in short, to group activity and coöperative effort.

Summary. The teachers' meeting as discussed in this chapter is characterized by the relatively small size of its group, the small area from which the teachers come, the informal confer-

ence character of the meeting, the direct bearing upon the teachers' problems of the topics discussed, the absence of imported speakers, the large degree of teacher participation, the relatively important position of demonstration teaching, preparation by the teacher for the meeting in advance, careful follow-up work by the supervisor, the democratic atmosphere of the meeting, and the placing of responsibility for the success of the meeting upon the teacher. At its best it is an opportunity, not a requirement, and it is a most effective agency for promoting the educational welfare of children.

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CHAPTER X

THE DEMONSTRATION LESSON AS AN AGENCY IN SUPERVISION

Purposes served by demonstration lessons. Supervisors are aware of the fact that a teacher may take courses at a school of education, listen to lectures in the field of pedagogy, and read books on method and professionalized subject matter without manifesting any appreciable change either in her ideas or in her teaching skill. There are many people who benefit more by actually seeing a thing done than by hearing how it may be done. A teacher of this type may sometimes be helped immediately and effectively by observing well taught demonstration lessons. Supervisors who are alert to discover the special needs of a beginning teacher know that the demonstration lesson planned with these needs in mind can give to the beginner concrete illustration of lesson procedures, of drill devices, or of classroom organization, as the case may be. The values of demonstration are thus expressed by McCall:¹

An ounce of demonstration is worth a pound of words. It takes more words to describe effectively what is to be done than it takes moves to show what is to be done. Anyone can try for himself and experiment to discover whether it is easier to show than to tell. Probably due to primordial practice, children, not to mention adults, can imitate better than they can comprehend and follow linguistic directions. To accompany description with a demonstration not only caters to pupils who may get impressions easier through the eye or through the ear, but, what is more important, it gives to all an impression through both eye and ear. Demonstration has the still further advantage of securing better attention.

¹ William A. McCall, *How to Measure in Education* (The Macmillan Co., 1922), p. 237.

Demonstration lessons are used by supervisors for purposes other than to improve the teaching of the weak teacher or of the beginning teacher. They are used for directing the content of new courses of study, for evaluating children's reactions and responses, or for suggesting new devices and procedures. Through the observation and discussion of demonstration lessons planned for such purposes as these, the supervisor may serve the needs of his superior teachers and may assist in promoting their professional growth.

Evidence of the value of demonstration lessons. There is plenty of evidence to show that the demonstration lesson is one of the most effective agencies for educating teachers, and that teachers themselves accord demonstration teaching a high rank among supervisory aids.

To the question, "What has happened during the past year which has made a difference in the way you teach?" the elementary teachers of Beaumont, Texas, ranked the observation of demonstration lessons as the most helpful of all the supervisory methods.²

Barr's study³ shows demonstrations as the second most important "training activity" of supervisors.

Questionnaire returns⁴ from teachers in Hammond, Indiana, and Topeka, Kansas, show that "more demonstration teaching" was one of the supervisory aids most frequently desired.

Miss Southall's recent study⁵ involving the practices in urban and rural areas of two hundred representative supervisors and

² George D. Strayer, Director, *Survey of the Schools of Beaumont, Texas* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927), pp. 43-44.

³ A. S. Barr, *An Analysis of the Duties and Functions of Instructional Supervisors* (Bureau of Educational Research, University of Wisconsin, 1926), pp. 31-34, 176.

⁴ H. W. Nutt, *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction* (Johnson Publishing Co., 1928), pp. 244-246, 254.

⁵ Maycie Southall, *Direct Agencies of Supervision as Used by General Elementary Supervisors*, Contributions to Education, No. 66 (George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930).

the opinions of representative members of three other professional groups, namely, specialists in supervision, superintendents employing supervisors, and teachers being supervised, is corroborative of the important place which teachers give to the demonstration lesson. In this study, the average ratings of the teachers both as to the value of demonstration teaching and the extent to which it should be used were somewhat higher than those of the other professional groups. Demonstration teaching is considered most valuable and recommended for most frequent use in the training of beginning teachers, next most frequently in helping those teachers with specific weaknesses and teaching difficulties, and third most frequently for strong teachers who are attempting newer methods for the first time.

In a recent investigation made by a committee of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction,⁶ although demonstration teaching ranked very high among the types of supervisory services considered helpful by teachers, only a small proportion of the teachers in seven well-known cities noted it as being used by their supervisors. From these reports the *Third Yearbook* Committee inferred that supervisors are not utilizing this very helpful and constantly demanded device as frequently and as effectively as they should.

Types of effective demonstration lessons. If the demonstration lesson is to be an effective agency of supervision, there are several points to keep in mind. First, it must fill a real and not a fictitious need of the observers; second, the criteria or standards to be used in evaluating the lesson should be known by the teacher who is observed as well as by the teachers who are observing; third, the lesson should be a "regular" lesson, next in the teacher's plan, and not a "special" lesson; fourth, it should be followed by a conference in which the procedures of the lesson together with the reactions and responses of the children are analyzed.

⁶ *Current Problems of Supervisors, Third Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1930, pp. 47, 71, 83, 85-86.

The demonstration lesson has for its purpose the meeting of a fundamental need of the observers. The observers, therefore, may receive beneficial treatment for their particular educational ailments, or they may gain incentive to do even better those things that they are already doing creditably, depending on the purpose of the supervisor who arranged for the observation and demonstration. The lesson being "regular" and not "special," the observers are enabled to see a phase or phases of the children's work carried on under as normal conditions and in as sincere a way as possible. In the conference following the lesson the procedures are analyzed, pupil responses are interpreted, and the reasons for such reactions and responses are brought out, thus guarding against the grave danger of blind imitation on the part of some of the teachers who observe. Teachers are encouraged to participate freely in the after-discussion. By evaluating the lesson in the light of sound criteria, the supervisor endeavors to build up or to strengthen an educational philosophy.

In general, the supervisor uses three types of demonstration lessons: (1) those taught by a supervisor for a teacher in the teacher's own classroom; (2) those taught by a teacher in connection with the intervisiting of teachers; (3) those taught either by supervisor or teacher for a group of observers at a teachers' meeting.

The demonstration lesson taught by supervisor for teacher. When visiting a teacher's classroom the supervisor may demonstrate for the teacher either by becoming a member of the class without assuming direction, or he may assume direction of the class while the teacher assumes the rôle of observer. The first procedure, the supervisor participating in the lesson without assuming direction of the class, is discussed at some length in Chapter VII.

When the supervisor assumes direction of the class while the teacher observes, it may be for the purpose of strengthening a weak or inexperienced teacher whose teaching is ineffective, or for demonstrating certain methods of teaching that have proved

their worth, or it may be to teach some phase of the course of study in language, arithmetic, history, or geography that seems difficult to the teacher.

There are certain types of lessons that the supervisor may be willing to teach on the spur of the moment without previous planning or preparation; such, for example, as a spelling lesson, a drill lesson in one of the fundamental processes of arithmetic, a poem or a story with which he is thoroughly familiar. He would, however, probably need to plan carefully before teaching a lesson in history, geography, hygiene, civics, problem-solving in arithmetic, music, or art.

In the fall many supervisors are especially alert to the needs of their new teachers. One of these supervisors after visiting his new teachers in their classrooms and noting their various difficulties arranged to teach at least one lesson for each of them during September. Knowing that it is possible for teachers *to observe without thinking, or learning*, he gave each one the following outline to use while observing him at work with the children.

I hope you can recall the matters we discussed during my last visit to you. Please have in mind also the following things as you observe my work with the children:

1. The steps of the lesson
2. The necessity of having clearly in mind what children should gain from the lesson
3. Need for an interesting approach to the unit or story to be introduced
4. Importance of watching children and their reactions, thus learning the capacities and interests of the class
5. Importance of giving children time to think and to respond

The supervisor demonstrated that a lesson founded upon sound educational principles and well rounded out could be taught in fifteen minutes or in thirty minutes, whichever the situation called for, if careful preparation had preceded it. After the lesson each of the foregoing items was discussed with the teacher who was encouraged to comment freely upon what had taken place. Furthermore, the teacher was brought to a realization of

the advantage of self-checking at the end of a teaching period through questions such as these:

1. Were the children able to do what I wanted them to do? Why or why not?
2. Did they gain in study habits?
3. What new knowledge and appreciations did they gain?

With more experienced teachers the supervisor from time to time demonstrates lessons which meet their respective needs. For example, in the field of English with Grades 5 or 6, it might be:

1. Criticism of written composition from the standpoint of *interest in the content of the story*
2. Use of *definite standards* as a guide in the critique

In silent reading of "The King of the Golden River" with Grades 4 or 5, the supervisor might require the following procedures in training for comprehension:

1. *Judgment* in selection of parts in answer to question
2. *Scanning* by giving name to a selected part
3. *Seatwork*: charting the characters with their corresponding qualities

In geography, with Grades 6 and 7, a supervisor found it necessary in several classrooms to teach the following subject matter and then to plan follow-up lessons with the teachers:

1. Zones, the result of light rays
 - a. Effect of light upon climate
 - b. Distinction between light zones and heat zones
2. With globe in hand demonstrate how the earth keeps its 45° inclination without actually swinging back and forth.
 - a. Cause of seasons
 - b. Six months' day and six months' night at poles as a result of earth's inclination

Examples of unplanned demonstration lessons that may be taught on the spur of the moment by the supervisor to meet evident needs of teachers are as follows:

Arithmetic, Grade 5, Problem-solving

1. Oral test through steps in problem solving
2. Scanning
3. Deciding upon process
4. Labeling
5. Application—independent use of text

Handwriting, Grades 3-4

1. Analysis (letter b)
2. Practice for letter formation
3. Judging for quality
4. Use in sentences

Language, Grade 1, Discussion of Farm for Sand Table

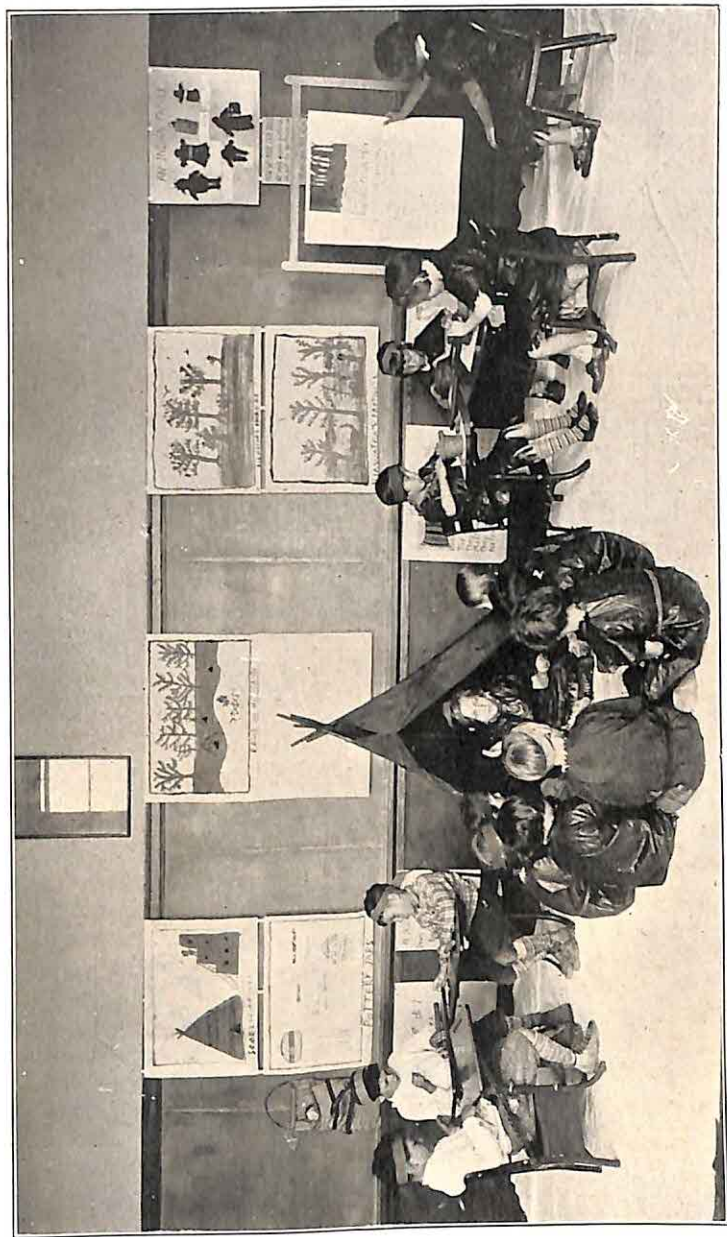
1. Different animals on the farm
2. Uses of the animals
3. Care of the animals
4. How to make the scenes
5. What to make
6. Arrangement on the table

Lessons taught by supervisors are not always successful. Sometimes the situation is strained, the children are not at ease, the hoped for outcomes are disappointing. Sometimes the supervisor, not having been in constant touch with the particular classroom, may suggest unwise technics. Again, the wider skill and experience of the demonstrating supervisor may overawe and discourage the regular teacher. These disadvantages may be overcome, however, if it is made clear that the supervisor is trying to demonstrate a teaching idea rather than a perfect teaching technic, and if the teacher is encouraged to question, discuss, and suggest further improvement of the idea being demonstrated. Especially should it be made clear that the teacher is to keep her own individuality, that it is not the purpose of the supervisor to create duplicate patterns of herself. The wise supervisor conveys to the teacher a self-confidence in the latter's ability not merely to copy but to reason out a justification of the idea being demonstrated.

Intervisiting of teachers. When a supervisor asks himself the question, "What technics will be useful in meeting the problems of my teachers?" the answer will sometimes be, "A day for visiting and observing the teaching of others." To meet such a plan the teachers may be grouped according to their needs and permitted to visit one or more classrooms. One group might comprise those teachers who are weak in planning and carrying out plans; another group might include those lacking in general classroom control, or needing to improve the appearance of their classrooms; another, those needing to improve specific phases of teaching; another, those needing help in properly balancing the school day in respect to work-study activities and activities in the field of appreciation and recreation.

Seeing other teachers at work is helpful not only to weak teachers and average teachers, but to superior teachers as well. A strong teacher who is conscientiously and enthusiastically interested in her profession cannot observe children being taught even for so brief a period as fifteen minutes without questioning certain procedures, or having certain convictions strengthened, or obtaining some new ideas or, it may be, new angles on old ideas. The following comment by a superior teacher indicates her appreciation of the privilege of visiting other teachers:

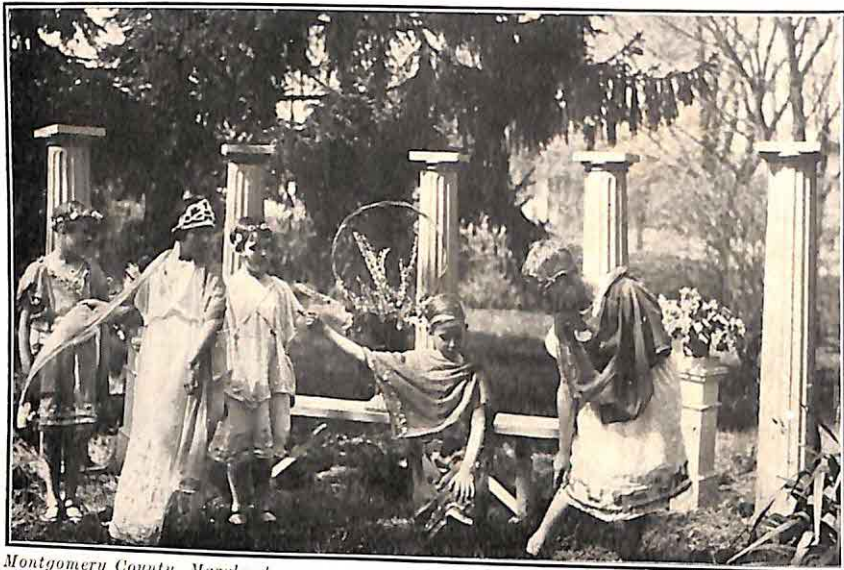
Intervisiting is rather infrequently practiced, it seems. I have often wondered why this was the case. Almost any teacher would be glad to pay occasionally for the services of a substitute for half a day for the sake of such visiting. I recall very distinctly the lessons which I saw given by other teachers while I was teaching in the public schools. I once visited an expression class in Gary, conducted by a teacher with real ideas. I still can picture the children of all ages coming into the room, taking from the large jar the amount of clay they needed for their models, carrying it to some place in the room which suited their needs, and proceeding to model. The atmosphere was that of a studio. Informal talking was the natural thing, and interference with other people's rights was not in evidence. The results, moreover, were most interesting. Surely this was more helpful to me than many lectures.



Frederick County, Maryland.

"INDIANS" AT WORK IN THE SECOND GRADE.

Making implements, telling stories, making and mending pottery, reading chart stories composed by the group, all have real significance. The study of the life of these first Americans tends to make them living creatures in the eyes of children.



Montgomery County, Maryland.

SCENE 4 FROM ACT III OF "THE TRIALS OF THE HOUSE OF ULYSSES."

In their discussion of the dramatic activity as an opportunity for developing powers of self-expression, the teachers noted that this fourth-grade playlet provided for spoken language, singing language, musical interpretation, artistic symbolism, pantomime, and rhythmic response.



Frederick County, Maryland.

"SNOW WHITE" IS DRAMATIZED BY A SECOND GRADE.

In Scene II, in the forest, Snow White pleads for her life. The background scene was designed and painted by the children; the costuming and the dramatic expression provide a real outlet for the talent developed in the classroom.

In order to make the intervisiting of teachers constructively helpful, careful supervisory guidance is necessary. This may be provided in different ways according to the purpose to be served by the visiting. Varied purposes for visiting as well as varied types of supervisory guidance are shown in the following illustrations.

1. *Visiting to acquire higher standards.* In one county at the mid-year the three supervisors, feeling that a day of observation would be helpful, sent a letter to teachers in both towns and rural schools designating a period as "Observation week" and asking them to spend one day of that week in visiting other schools.

An outline for the analysis of teaching was planned by the superintendent and supervisors so that each teacher, in view of the day's work observed, might understand the child better, the art of questioning, the subject matter, and the effect of good housekeeping by looking for specific evidence of each.

The part of the "Observation Sheet" designed for the analysis of subject matter, questions, and housekeeping is here given. A space for "Observed examples" followed each question:

Subject Matter

1. What specific evidence did you see that the subject matter was organized for learning to take place (examples: unit organization, problem organization, textbook organization).
2. What evidence did you see that the subject matter was justified by:
 - a. tradition only—no reason on part of teachers to justify it
 - b. needs of pupils—reasons on part of teachers to justify it. What were the reasons?

Questions

1. What use was made of *fact questions*?
Note: *What, who, when, where* questions.
2. What use was made of *interpretative questions*?

Note: Questions that bring out the meaning implied in the text.
Examples:

"Coke is made from soft coal by being burned in ovens until very little remains except pure carbon. Carbon is the part which makes heat."

Question: "Would one ton of coke produce more heat than one ton of coal?"

"People who left their kindred and friends in the old world for the American wilderness preferred neighbors from their homeland." Question: "Why did the emigrants prefer neighbors from the homeland?"

Housekeeping

1. Was there evidence of things out of season?
2. Was there evidence of things out of use?
3. Was material well arranged for use and ready as needed?
4. What was the condition of the material?
5. What was the appearance of the room?
6. Was proper use being made of the window shades?
7. Was the room properly ventilated?
8. Did pupils seem to accept responsibility for the care of materials, room, and grounds?
9. Did the pupils care for the library corner and for the books?
10. Did the pupils use the library freely?
11. Did *all* the children remove their outdoor wearing apparel?
12. Was the cloakroom orderly?

When teachers observe and discuss classroom work in terms of an outline similar to the foregoing, the mutual understanding that results is exceedingly helpful in raising the level of instruction and in gaining the values inherent in an attractive classroom where the machinery does not creak.

2. *The visit that enables "beginners" to see skillful teaching in attractive classrooms.* One of the problems of the rural supervisor is that of helping the beginning teacher to apply educational principles to a practical situation. It is well for beginning teachers to see skillful teachers handle situations similar to their own and to see attractive, well arranged classrooms. It is desirable that they become better acquainted with the particular school system they are entering, and that they be made to feel that they are a part of that system. In the attempt to meet the needs of these new teachers, a supervisor planned to have them observe the teaching of reading (two groups of children), arithmetic (two groups of children), and oral language. All of the

lessons were to be taught by the strong teacher of a fourth-grade class. The letter of assignment included the following directions:

We are asking you to come to Denton Primary School for a conference and observation on Friday, October 28, at 1:30 P. M. You will observe lessons in fourth-grade reading, arithmetic, and language.

Will you come prepared to answer these questions?

1. In reading, a class seems to test well in getting central thought, but tests poorly in handling fact material. What treatment should be given?
2. In arithmetic what should be done for a class that is having difficulty with subtraction?
3. In language what should be done with pupils who do not think clearly and who do not express thoughts clearly?

Keeping the above questions in mind, read:

English Bulletin, State Department of Education

Silent Reading Bulletin, p. 35

Arithmetic Bulletin, p. 26

PARKER: *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*, Chs. vi, xi, xii.

This assignment was made to teachers before observation:

1. Notice steps in each lesson
2. Can you find the answers to the questions in your letter by this observation?

Following the lessons, at three o'clock, the program included:

1. A discussion of the lessons
2. A study of the teacher's plans for teaching the lessons
3. An examination of the classroom for evidences of things already accomplished and things to be accomplished.

This half-day visit may be commended for the following reasons: first, the supervisor had very definite aims in view when she planned the visiting; second, the assignment prepared the teachers to observe intelligently and to take part in the subsequent discussion; third, the observation and conference were well adapted to the needs of new or beginning teachers.

3. *The visit that educates the demonstrating teacher as well as the observers.* A supervisor endeavored to arouse the ambition and improve the classroom procedure of a certain teacher, experienced, able, and well trained, but who was "in a rut," by sending some teacher-visitors to her. The supervisory plan included the improvement not only of the teacher-hostess but also of the visitors themselves. The type of supervisory aid given to the teacher-hostess is shown below in the first letter; that given to the visiting teachers is shown in the second letter. Because of the careful supervisory guidance it is not surprising to learn that the response of the three teachers concerned was most gratifying. They felt that they had been helped in a very practical way.

My dear Miss ———,

Genuine hospitality is a recognized trait of those who live in Anne Arundel County. Therefore, I believe you will welcome a few visitors from among the "home folks." Miss ——— and Miss ———, teaching at ——— and ———, respectively, feel that they can profit by visiting a teacher who has a teaching situation somewhat similar to their own; consequently, I am suggesting that they spend next Tuesday, or a part of it, with you.

Here are the things I should like these two teachers to see exemplified strongly in your room: orderly classroom management, well directed study, lesson organization, intelligent use of text or texts, and judicious teacher activity. For your guidance I shall discuss each of these.

In *classroom control* I wish them to see your children busy without undue noise—nobody studying aloud, nobody droning over his work, no explosive interruptions of a recitation by pupils of another class, no confusion due to frequent changing of seats or passing in and out of the room, and no bewildering recitation by several pupils at the same time. Be sure that your monitors function smoothly, that the reading table is used in an orderly way, and that your lines pass in unhurried order.

In *directed study* be sure that children are well able to do the work designated, that they are supplied with all materials needed, and that they get to work promptly and quietly. If directed study precedes the recitation, you will naturally make use of it in the recitation. If it follows the recitation, you will see to it that the directions logically follow the discussion and are of obvious significance to the children. Let no *irrelevant seat-work* appear on the board.

Each class period will naturally be an organized unit in itself, though I hope you may be handling smaller daily units as parts of larger ones. If so, let each be well organized, that is, provide for a recall of previous related learning by a pupil, or pupils, rather than by yourself. Then see that your presentation or assimilation follows the trend of the directed study. Be sure to show that children know how to handle their books easily for a given purpose, that is, to find information, a picture, a graph, statistics, a map, and can read from their books to prove an assertion or to disprove one. For your part be sure to use your boards, maps, and other accessories just as well as you usually do. In concluding the lesson be sure to satisfy yourself in some way that the class has clearly the idea which you set out to give. You may do this in a summarizing question which gets a simple, brief, thoughtful answer from the children; in a summarizing paragraph; in solving a new, related question in terms of the knowledge just obtained; in filling blanks of a summarizing paragraph; in following directions which test the teaching. As usual provide for an assignment which grows out of the lesson and has an obvious "excuse for being."

You will use your texts well, I am sure, as materials to be read, thought about, discussed, checked upon, and sometimes analyzed; but seldom as memory material. If your children can in reading find a challenging statement, prove a fact true or false, see interesting facts in pictures, locate places on maps, or raise related questions, all well and good. Some of these will certainly happen and you will as certainly throw pupils back upon the books for help.

And all through the lessons you will watch yourself to *see that you do not both "teach and recite"*; that you do not ask many suggestive questions which elicit only a guess at "yes" or "no"; that you do not pass judgment upon response when the individual or class may well be trained to carry this responsibility; that you do not waste time by repeating the child's ideas; and that you do no more than a *fair share* of the talking.

You must be wondering, "Well, why has she taken the time to tell me all this, when I always do it anyway?" I am ready to agree with you, but just to provide a basis for a subsequent conference with you and your visitors I want to be sure of what they see. Suppose you keep this little guide in your mind for the visitors who soon will be coming from elsewhere, too. Several visitors from the N. E. A. are asking to stop over and visit our schools.

If next Tuesday is an impossible day for you to receive visitors set another day as soon thereafter as possible. But, in any event, will you

write to the two teachers named above, telling them which day you will expect them and making them feel that they will be welcome?

Cordially yours,

M. CLARICE BERSCH

My dear Miss ———,

As we planned during my visit with you on Wednesday, I have written to Miss ——— asking if your proposed visit on Tuesday will be quite convenient for her. She is to notify you directly and I am hoping you have already received an invitation.

Also, in line with our conference, I have prepared a little guide to help you observe. You may not need it, but it will possibly suggest a few details which otherwise would escape attention. Perhaps you will be most helped by looking through it carefully and thoughtfully before going to visit, and then by observing the work without having the guide before you. Try to carry the five big questions in your mind as you watch the class procedures and the subordinate questions will then come into your mind of themselves. After a recitation is completed, refer to your guide, think the lesson through point by point, and indicate your impression on the dotted lines briefly. Repeat this for each lesson observed and be prepared to give me a report when opportunity permits.

If you feel the day is well spent, and you see much which you actually take home with you and put into practice, will you not tell me about it at our next conference? I shall be much interested.

Very sincerely yours,

M. CLARICE BERSCH

To Help You Observe

[Enclosed in the second letter]

- I. Is this classroom a good place in which to study?
1. Are children passing in and out, moving about the room unnecessarily with undue noise, sharpening pencils?
2. Do children wait to be called upon individually before answering a question?
3. Does the class reciting consciously refrain from disturbing other classes at work?
4. Is the teacher, or class reciting, disturbed in any way by other pupils in the room?
5. Are the study materials—papers, texts, maps, etc.—supplied quietly by a monitor when needed?

- II. Are the children studying whole-heartedly?
 1. Do the assignments challenge their interest and respect?
 2. Are the directions for study definite and clear?
 3. Do you see good habits of study?
 - a. Thoughtful attention to directions first
 - b. Confident use of study helps—index, maps, charts, tables, pictures, etc.
 - c. Deliberate study checked by directions
 - d. Painstaking efforts in organizing results
 - e. A businesslike use of time
 4. Do directions for study grow out of, or prepare for, the recitations?
 5. Working steadily, how long does it take the average pupils to complete the assignment?
- III. Is the lesson observed a unit in itself or a part of a larger unit of work?
 1. What does the class set out to accomplish?
 2. Is there a stated connection with previous work?
 3. How does the class reach its objective for the period?
 4. How does the teacher satisfy herself that the class has gained clear, correct ideas?
 5. Is the class consciously fixing a few new ideas in right relation to a mass of old ones, or is it trying to learn a few pages or facts?
- IV. Does the class use texts as tools?
 1. Can information in texts be located easily?
 2. Are pupils' statements proved by references cited from the book, or books?
 3. Are the problems raised from texts settled by the teacher, or by further study of the text and other sources?
 4. Can the children use maps, pictures, graphs, or tables to prove a statement?
 5. Do children gain *ideas* from study or merely recall certain "words, sentences, or paragraphs"?
- V. Does the teacher stamp her own opinions on the class or is she training children to form thoughtful opinions upon careful study?
 1. Do the questions suggest the answers?
 2. Are pupil responses accepted or rejected by the teacher or by the pupils?
 3. Are opinions checked against texts or other sources?
 4. Is time wasted on an expression of unsupported ideas?

5. Is a significant question held under discussion until it is satisfactorily answered by the children in thoughtful, well organized statement?

Certain questions may properly be raised in respect to the foregoing supervisory procedure. Were too many matters stressed? Was the demonstration a "staged" affair? Did timidity make the teacher appear at her worst? In considering these questions it is well to know that the teachers concerned were experienced teachers who had been working under the supervisor's guidance for several years. Demonstration work was a regular part of the supervisory program. The demonstrating teacher had considerable poise and had been given assistance by the supervisor in all the matters discussed in the letter.

The procedure may be highly commended for the following reasons:

1. The demonstration met carefully determined teacher needs.
2. The demonstrating teacher was stimulated by the prospect of visitors.
3. The demonstrating teacher knew the *observation points* that would be used as a basis for a subsequent conference.
4. Both the demonstrating teacher and her visitors were carefully prepared for the observation.
5. The demonstration was followed by a supervisory conference with each of the three teachers.
6. The observation guide focused attention wholly upon the children.
7. The observers were given a helpful suggestion for using the observation guide.

4. *Visiting to study different phases of the problem lesson.* For a group of eight strong teachers who were anxious to improve their technic in handling problem lessons in history and geography a supervisor arranged an afternoon of visiting. Three of the eight agreed to demonstrate for the others. One taught a geography lesson in which a new problem was introduced to the class. Another taught a geography lesson in which a class was in the midst of work on a problem. The third taught a geography lesson in which the class was summarizing the information and

understandings growing out of work with a problem that was about completed.

These three lessons provided a fine basis for a conference in which the eight teachers and the supervisor participated. They agreed that textbook material must be used to answer a problem raised by teacher and pupils and that the amount of detail supplied by the textbook is often inadequate. They noted that in teaching either geography or history teachers need to investigate the actual knowledge of children, present the new apperceptively, guide the study of the material to be acquired, test children on the part studied, and provide many opportunities for the application of knowledge gained in practical situations. The teachers saw, also, that for children to learn they must appreciate, assimilate, organize, and apply. The effectiveness of study depends largely upon the desire, the goal in view, the mastery of the tools of study, and the materials at hand. A child thinks to poor advantage when he has few ideas to think about. A teacher's task is to assemble much material about certain topics and then put the child in contact with the material. Much emphasis was placed on geography as a *thinking subject* rather than a *memory-drill subject*. Children need to be trained to find and organize materials relating to a problem.

The demonstration lesson at a teachers' meeting. The most direct method to be used as a basis for the discussion of problems pertaining to the teaching of a certain subject, or for inducting a group of teachers into a new technic of teaching, is the demonstration lesson followed by a discussion participated in by teachers and supervisor. The following pages contain illustrative demonstration lessons together with typical topics and programs discussed at teachers' meetings.

1. *The observation guide.* When teachers are observing a lesson it is usual for supervisors to expect them to do two things; namely, secure accurate data, and analyze these data. How well these two processes are accomplished depends for each teacher

TABLE XVIII.—OBSERVATION GUIDE*

BACKGROUND OF EXPERIENCE	FORMATION OF ECONOMICAL AND EFFECTIVE HABITS	OPPORTUNITY FOR ADJUSTMENT TO SOCIAL SITUATIONS	PROVISION FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES	ADAPTATIONS TO INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES	READING ACTIVITIES
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Previous interest in own environment 2. Interest in outside qualities 3. Early education 4. In process of development 5. Experience situations 6. Educational opportunities 7. Spirit of knight-hood 8. Qualities of knights 9. Loyalty 10. Fair play 11. Justice 	Correction of English Courtesy Initiative Leadership Organization of material Conservation of time Use of charts, maps Originality Cooperation Responsibility Economy of space and materials	Free periods Socialized lesson Class as a unit <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In groups 2. In sub-groups Work period Formation of groups Environment Dramatization	Free period Socialized reading News activities Individual responsibility Decided for self when task was completed Investigating Experimenting Creative work Individual reading	Provision for slow and fast readers Committees Following directions Gradation of difficulties for groups Method and approach of teacher	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Contributing to reading growth Stories read—correlation with history <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Intelligent interpretation b. Directed study 2. As a stimulus to expression—creative work <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. modeling b. building c. play—costumes—scenery 3. Using reading as a tool: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Gathering data for reports b. Proof of arguments (Reading to get age or period) c. Comparing 4. Training in appreciation and stimulating enjoyment <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Knights of today b. Good stories read c. Respect for difficulties 5. Developing fundamental reading skills: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Skimming to get main idea b. Oral reading c. Outlining d. Increasing rate and comprehension

* Prepared by Catherine Green, Supervisor of Primary Grades, Prince George's County, Md.

largely upon his ability to identify and locate problems, upon his training and experience, and upon his note-taking. The following observation guide is suggested by Mead ⁷ as a useful plan for the recording of data by student teachers. It is given a place here because its simplicity will commend itself to those supervisors who have to work with many untrained teachers.

TEACHER OBSERVED OBSERVER

Size of Class No. Boys No. Girls

Time	Teacher Activities	Pupil Activities	Miscellaneous

Another rather effective plan which many supervisors suggest that teachers use for observation purposes is the following:

Strong Features of the Lesson	Questions Suggested by the Lesson	Remarks

For the observation of a lesson with a third-grade class in citizenship a supervisor prepared for a group of well trained teachers a blank, a sample of which is here given, together with a somewhat "sketchy" record made by one of the observing teachers. The record, brief though it is, was used to good advantage as material for an analysis of the teaching observed. Specific examples were given to illustrate the notations made in each column.

⁷ Arthur R. Mead, *Supervised Student-Teaching* (Johnson Publishing Co., 1930), p. 169.

2. *The observation of a spelling lesson.* At the beginning of the school year each teacher in a supervisory unit was asked to do definite work in spelling:

1. To study the needs of her pupils
2. To have pupils keep a record of all troublesome words (class list in addition to spelling list for grade)
3. To keep a class record for drill on troublesome words
4. To use graphs to show standing of classes

In preparation for a teachers' meeting the following letter was sent:

I shall meet with the teachers of Grades 3 and 4, Wednesday afternoon, February 4, 1:15 at Wayside School. Miss —— will demonstrate her method of teaching and testing spelling. We shall evaluate the procedures used during the lesson and, in addition, will discuss the following topics:

1. How are spelling lists determined?
2. Does our present word list meet the needs of your pupils? If not, what suggestions have you to offer?
3. State all the bonds necessary to be cared for in teaching how to spell a word.
4. What modifications, if any, would you make in using the procedure for teaching a word as given in Pearson and Suzzalo, Book I, Part I?
5. How would you plan to correct such errors as:

quite for quiet
bed for red
frase for phrase

sd for sad
wich for which
peice for piece

6. What plan are you using to record the errors in spelling made by your pupils? (Bring record book with you.)
7. Bring a sample paper of a daily lesson in spelling; also a weekly and a monthly test used with your pupils.
8. Why make blackboard assignments in reading? How may these assignments be checked?
9. Bring to the meeting three or four papers of different types of good reading assignments answered by your pupils. Write the teacher's assignment on the back of the pupil's papers.

References

- PARKER: *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning* (Ch. iv)
LARUE: *The Child's Mind and the Common Branches* (Ch. x)
Pearson and Suzzalo *Speller*, Book I, Part I—Suggestions
Baltimore County Course of Study
STONE: *Silent and Oral Reading*
PENNELL and CUSACK: *How to Teach Reading*

The critique of the spelling lesson was based on these questions:

1. Name in order the steps in the procedure of the lesson.
2. Give the reason for this order.
3. Was each step sufficiently well mastered by the group before another step was taken up? Illustrate.
4. How were the different mental types of children cared for?
5. Did the lesson take care of the laws of learning? How?
 - a. Law of readiness
 - b. Law of exercise
 - c. Law of effect
6. What modifications, if any, would you make in using this *procedure* or would you have followed another procedure?

The classroom observations of spelling during the "follow up" work showed that gains had been made in respect to the following:

1. An intelligent handling of spelling evidenced by:
 - a. The selection of words for study
 - b. The method of teaching new words
 - c. The careful handling of misspelled words
 - d. The caring for the abilities of pupils by organizing independent study groups for the stronger pupils and grouping the slower ones for more intensive study
 - e. The keeping of a record by teacher and pupil of all words taught
 - f. The training of pupils to recognize and check their own errors
2. The use of individual and class graphs
3. Decrease in the number of words misspelled^s

^s Reported by Grace Boryer Downin, Supervisor of Primary Grades, Washington County, Maryland.

3. *The observation of music lessons.* In very few supervisory units in rural areas are there special supervisors of music. Practically every teacher in such areas is responsible for teaching music in her own classroom. Invitations to a teachers' meeting, called by a general supervisor for the purpose of improving the teaching of music and of stimulating further interest in the subject, were received by thirty teachers two weeks in advance. They were asked to come to the meeting prepared to contribute to the discussion of the following questions and to raise others if they cared to do so:

1. How much time should be allotted to music on the daily program? To teaching music? To testing music?
2. Do you agree with the objectives for the elementary grades as outlined in the *State Department Bulletin*, "Tentative Goals in Music"?
3. What rudiments of teaching technic do you consider sufficiently essential to music teaching to be listed as minimum requirements?
4. What should be the minimum equipment of music materials for every teacher?

The teachers met at nine o'clock and observed four music lessons, each taught by a different teacher. The lessons were taught to grades 1, 4, 5, and 7, respectively. Each lesson was twenty minutes in length. The observation guide given to each teacher was as follows:

Observation Guide for Music Lessons

The following types of work will be demonstrated with each of the four classes:

1. Class singing

Note the quality of tone and the song interpretation of each group.

Are the voices unified or are some children doing solo work?

Are the children using their singing voices?

Are the tones suppressed and breathy?

Do they enunciate well?

Is the singing expressive or colorless?

2. Dictation—ear training

Note the number of individual responses and the variety of materials used.

Are the children recognizing phrases they have memorized, or are they spontaneously recognizing known intervals in various groupings?

Are a few leaders doing most of the work, or is there evidence of considerable individual power?

3. Sight reading

Note the number of individual responses.

Are the children reading the notes or have they memorized them?

What proportion of the children are doing the work?

What power have they as individuals?

Has the amount of work done in music technic robbed the children of the joy which should come from their music?

The music lessons were well taught. Each of the observing teachers had had training in music at the normal school. Better teaching of music was being stressed as a countywide objective. There was enough of a musical background to insure intelligent listening and intelligent discussion. The meeting set higher and more definite standards for the teaching of music.

The use of check lists. A great number of record blanks and check lists have been devised for rating teachers, for analyzing teacher needs, for recording improvement in procedure. Many of these are too vague and subjective. Many of them on the other hand are too detailed and overrefined. The same is true of check lists for evaluating teaching or classroom control. It is well to recognize the fact that check lists have certain disadvantages as well as advantages. They are often a guide for securing data without relating the data to the whole situation.⁹ Supervisors need to be on guard against the practice of furnishing teachers with a long list of questions (a check list), encouraging them to watch closely to find the things on the list and to check accordingly; and, finally, feeling certain that they can size up the situation

⁹ Many check lists may be found in Anderson, Barr, and Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work* (D. Appleton & Co., 1925); Barr and Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (D. Appleton & Co., 1926); and Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching* (D. Appleton & Co., 1922).

adequately from these data. The pattern frequently does not fit the teaching situation. Often the analysis of teaching from such data is strikingly inaccurate. As Mead points out, the ability to reason (reflectively to analyze) and solve problems requires a great many different things. Often the very fundamentals of guiding learners to carry on such processes are neglected.¹⁰

Supervisors should stress the desirability of a critical, fact-finding attitude—an attitude of careful thinking, approaching the scientific, as far as possible. This has been emphasized and discussed at some length in Chapter VII.

In spite of their imperfections, however, it is distinctly helpful for the supervisor to develop check lists or observation points that embody the critical thinking of supervisor and teachers. These check lists may evaluate pupil activities or may outline the characteristics of a good lesson in arithmetic, history, or some other subject and may be used for purposes of judging the worth of a work period or a demonstration lesson in a particular subject. Some typical check lists or "observation points" are here given. Note that the attention is centered primarily on the activities, responses, and reactions of the children.

Pupils' Work Period (check list)

1. Are the pupils active?
2. Are they interested in their work?
3. Do they carry on their work when the teacher is not directing them?
4. Are they acquiring correct habits of work?
5. Are they working on problems suited to their age level?
6. Are they accomplishing something worth while? How do you know?
7. Are they putting forth their best efforts?
8. Is the work correlated around one large unit?
9. Are the results obtained satisfactory?

Geography Lesson (check list)

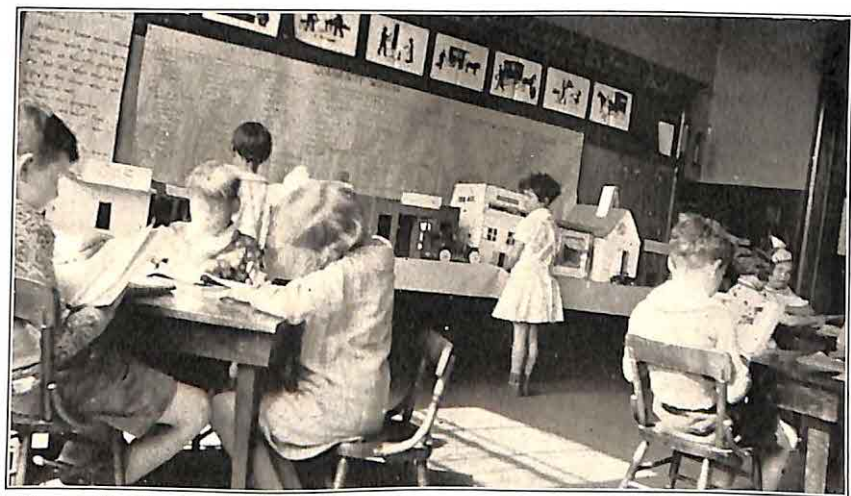
1. Was the lesson tied up with the preceding lesson? How?
2. Which of the following materials and devices were used: maps, globes,

¹⁰ Arthur R. Mead, *Learning and Teaching* (J. B. Lippincott Co., 1927), pp. 35-40.



Allegheny County, Maryland.

FIRST-GRADE WORK PERIOD.



Allegheny County, Maryland.

SECOND-GRADE WORK PERIOD.

Pupil activities in the first and second grades of Mt. Royal School were evaluated by the supervisor with the teachers of those grades in accordance with the check list for a pupils' work period found on page 310.



Prince George's County, Maryland.

SWITZERLAND TRANSPLANTED TO THE NEW WORLD.

In accordance with the check list on page 311, a group of teachers under the guidance of their supervisors evaluated work done in the social studies period by a third-grade class.

exhibits, pictures, blackboards, graphs, reference books, supplementary texts? How?

3. How were pupils stimulated and assisted in solving the problem?
 - a. Was the problem analyzed?
 - b. How was the problem kept in mind?
 - c. Were pupils encouraged to make any suggestions?
 - d. Were pupils encouraged to evaluate?
 - e. How was the material organized?
4. Was the problem solved? If so, were the pupils conscious of the solution?
5. Evaluate pupil participation.

Social Studies—Grades 1, 2, and 3 (check list)

1. Evaluate the class discussion
 - a. Was there a problem-question?
 - b. What information was gained? How was it gained?
 - c. What study habits and abilities were in evidence?
2. Evaluate the class story
 - a. Was it purposeful?
 - b. How was it developed?
 - c. What language abilities were being fostered?
 - d. What opportunities were given for reading?
 - e. Does the story conform to standards of composition?
3. In what activities are these pupils expressing the ideas gained from this unit?

Book Reports (check list)

1. Were the books reported on worth reading?
2. Were the reports sincere; that is, were they the natural expression of the children's appreciation and enjoyment of the books read? Cite specific instances to prove your answer.
3. Was there variety in the types of report?
4. What attitudes toward books are being built up? How?
5. What were the purposes of the book reports? To the children? To the teacher?
6. What opportunities for oral English do reports of this kind provide?

The Presentation Period—Grade 6 (check list)

1. Was the material of the Presentation Period well chosen; sufficient in quantity?

- a. Was there good control technique?
- b. Was the time element satisfactory? Was it too long or too short?
2. Was the presentation test suitable? Did it test what had been presented?
3. Was a re-presentation necessary? For what per cent of the group?
4. What provision was made for the assimilation period for the group showing presentation mastery?
5. Did this activity build on something already familiar to the children? Into what does it lead?

Demonstration lessons not necessarily model lessons. Sometimes there is the misconception that all demonstration lessons must be model lessons. This misconception is thus discussed in a recent *Research Bulletin*.¹¹

All demonstration lessons need not be model lessons nor examples of unusual teaching procedure. In practice the actual demonstration may be somewhat disjointed due to the importance of indicating a particular device. Furthermore, it would be excellent training for teachers to look upon the demonstration lessons as legitimate subjects for criticism. The wise supervisor will ask the teachers for suggestions on how to improve the demonstration lesson. With this critical attitude a teacher is more apt to make improvements in her own teaching. The idea that demonstration lessons are perfect leads to pure imitation. Pittman improved the supervision of rural schools through "suggestive" as contrasted with model lessons.

Although it is true that demonstration lessons need not be model lessons, it is equally true that poorly prepared or carelessly discussed demonstration lessons will be of no help in raising the level of instruction. Indeed, uninteresting and stereotyped lessons may have a very bad influence on teacher morale. Only a careless and incompetent supervisor would make such a haphazard use of demonstration teaching.

An argument sometimes heard against the use of demonstration lessons as a supervisory agency is that they tend to create too much uniformity. To be sure, there is the danger already

¹¹ "The Principal Studies His Job," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 6, No. 2 (March, 1928).

mentioned that certain teachers will slavishly imitate what they see. But this only emphasizes the need of the follow-up supervisory visit to assist teachers in applying the new ideas gained from the demonstration lesson.

Summary. There is every indication that demonstration lessons are effective in improving the work of teaching. Studies of opinion show consistently that teachers rate demonstrations high as a helpful method of solving their classroom problems. To render the greatest service demonstration lessons should meet the recognized needs of the observers. These observers should be prepared for the demonstration by an observation guide that indicates some of the criteria to be used in judging the worth of the lesson. The lesson should be taught under conditions as natural and sincere as possible; it should not be "overplanned" or stereotyped. A discussion following the demonstration lesson enables the observers to clarify their ideas by asking questions and making applications. Supervisory follow-up visits guard, further, against improper applications, serve to prevent the evils of blind imitation, and insure that the demonstration lessons exert a constructive influence on the teaching.

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CHAPTER XI

THE PREPARATION AND USE OF SUPERVISORY BULLETINS

Under the most favorable rural-school conditions existing to-day the supervisor is unable to visit the teacher more often than once a month. The distance between schools, road conditions, the number of teachers in the supervisory unit, the necessary administrative duties of the supervisor—all these make more frequent visits impossible. Were not these handicaps present it would still be necessary to use another instrument of supervision in order to make the personal visit, the individual conference, the teachers' meeting, and the demonstration lesson fully effective. The supervisory bulletin is this integrating instrument.

The development of the supervisory bulletin. During the past decade there has been issued from the offices of county superintendents and other rural supervisors a great bulk of mimeographed, hectographed, and printed bulletins. These bulletins had their beginning as educational items in the weekly newspaper. Notices of teachers' meetings, dates of teachers' examinations, and so on, were usually given publicity by means of the newspaper. Following the annual institute, the county superintendent prepared a report of it for publication. Later, a column in the newspaper devoted to news items concerning the county schools appeared. A great deal of instructional material was inserted in this column from time to time.

The next step in the development of the bulletin was its use as an administrative device at the county institute. The superintendent, in order to save time and to assure attention to certain routine matters relating to the county as a whole, such as attendance records, reports, examinations, and so on, prepared a hecto-

graphed or mimeographed bulletin of directions which was distributed to teachers at the annual institute. From time to time during the year additional bulletins were sent out. In many counties this occasional bulletin has developed into a monthly bulletin. The first bulletin of the year is a teachers' handbook containing a great deal of valuable information, particularly to the teacher having her first experience in the schools of the county. The handbook often presents, among numerous other items of information, the supervisory program for the year including the objectives and the plan of procedure.

An analysis¹ of 1,248 bulletins issued by county superintendents indicates the wide range of subjects treated. They include school apparatus, attendance of pupils, books, calendar of school, community meetings, contests, course of study, directories, discipline, examinations, flag, finance, graduation regulations, health and sanitation, holidays, music, program and class schedules, publicity, reports, school-board requirements, safety regulations, special day and week observance, supply lists for teacher, teacher association notices, and many other miscellaneous items.

Certainly a great deal of time at teachers' meetings has been saved through the development of the county superintendent's bulletins. Uniform in size and punched to fit a loose-leaf folder, they make a permanent file of the school regulations and administrative procedures. Out of these bulletins has grown the supervisory bulletin; in fact, the blending of the two types has been almost imperceptible.

For the purposes of discussion here the following classification of supervisory bulletins is used: (a) the preconference bulletin, (b) the follow-up bulletin, (c) the "progress" bulletin.

The preconference bulletin. This bulletin is sent to the teacher before a teachers' meeting, demonstration lesson, and often before a supervisory visit to the classroom where the "announced visit" procedure is used. The purpose of the bulletin, in general,

¹ C. J. Anderson, *The Supervisory Bulletin*, unpublished study (University of Wisconsin, 1928).

is to prepare the teacher for the meeting. Specifically, however, such bulletins may call for data or direct the teachers' activities in a testing program in order to obtain factual materials for discussion purposes at the beginning or during the progress of a year's supervisory program. An illustration of a preconference bulletin asking for data follows:

The following letter is being sent to all principals, and is to be answered only by the principal of each school. So that each assistant teacher may be prepared to give the principal of the school the desired information a copy of the letter is being sent to each one.

Dear Principal:

In your report to your supervising or helping teacher of the failures in the school of which you are principal, you reported children as having failed during the semester ending January 31, 1930.

Will you please write a letter to me giving therein the name of each child who failed and opposite each name the cause for the failure. On page three of the Teachers' Register the following causes are given for failures of pupils:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Personal illness | 6. Mental incapacity |
| 2. Late entrance due to causes other than illness, employment and transfer | 7. Unfortunate home conditions |
| 3. Late entrance in the first grade | 8. Inadequate preparation in English |
| 4. Employment | 9. Transfer from another school |
| 5. Irregular attendance not due to sickness | 10. Overcrowded classroom |
| | 11. Lack of interest |

Heck in his book, *Administration of Pupil Personnel*, gives the following grouping in classifying failures according to types:

1. Failure due to the child
 - a. Lack of mental ability
 - b. Incurable physical defects
- II. Failure due to the teacher
 - a. Use of poor methods
 - b. Lack of proper training
 - c. System of marking
 - d. Failure to understand problem cases

III. Failure due to the school

- a. Overcrowded classrooms
- b. Failure to adjust courses of study to provide special work for pupils of low ability or inadequate preliminary training

IV. Failure due to the out-of-school environment

- a. Parent's attitude
- b. Economic conditions
- c. Home and neighborhood

If there should be any cases of pupil failures which you feel do not come under any of the above causes, feel free to use any other causes to which failures were due.

The information given in all letters which reach me on or before Monday, April 7, 1930, will be compiled, and copies thereof will be distributed and discussed at the Teachers' Meetings April 9, 10, 11, 1930. There will be no particular references in the tabulations to any particular schools, but all information received in response to this letter will be included only in a general tabulation or summary.

Note that this bulletin was sent both to the teacher and to the principal. It calls for data on causes of pupil failure to be used as a basis for discussion at a teachers' meeting. An over-age study had been made in Garrett County the previous year. As a result of this study one of the objectives of the next year's county program was to bring about reductions in non-promotions and over-ageness in that county.

In order to show this bulletin in its proper setting in the development of a supervisory program, the following statement concerning the use of the data gathered through this bulletin is made.

The failures reported by teachers were summarized and discussed at teachers' meetings. The supervisors brought out that failure is usually accompanied by repetition of the grade. Teachers were asked to consider certain questions raised by Heck in his book; namely: Are our standards for the grade satisfactory? Is all of the work of one grade necessary for success in the succeeding grade? If it is not necessary, how high a standard of efficiency are we justified in demanding of a child before we allow

him to pass? How much good does a child obtain from the repetition of a grade or course? Is repeating a grade as valuable as the study of new materials? Since the efficiency of repetition is being questioned for certain individuals, is it wise to say that failure to do the work of the grade must involve repetition in every case? The criterion instead should be the possibility of success in the succeeding grade. Trial or conditional promotion will in some cases prove an incentive and make a success of a failure of the preceding year.

Plans should be matured for the elimination of all failures which are due to the teacher or to the school, classified under II and III. Cooperation in securing remedial measures which may improve physical and environmental conditions of children are, of course, desirable whenever possible. The discussion of the latter factors as causes of failure led to the advisability of having each teacher who was interested make a case study of one child reported as a failure. The following "Suggestive Outline for a Case Study" was made available to teachers and a number of them undertook such studies.

A Suggestive Outline for a Case Study

- I. Name, age, date, and place of birth of child
- II. Story of physical condition of child
 - A. Height and weight (normal and actual)
 - B. Condition of eyes, ears, teeth, etc.
- III. Story of home and environmental conditions
 - A. Economic condition—father's occupation
 - B. Number in family—ages of other children in family
 - C. Community activities of the family
 - D. Child's eating and sleeping habits
 - E. Child's duties at home
 - F. Child's out-of-school associates besides his family
- IV. Educational history, story of school attendance, behavior and achievements
 1. Age of child when enrolled
 2. Date of entrance
 3. Names of different schools attended with attendance record from each, if possible
 4. Grades passed, repeated, etc.
 5. Behavior record
 6. Previous teachers' comments concerning the child

7. Child's ability in various subjects
(Standard test results, if possible—his M.A. and I.Q.)
 8. Ability of child to adapt himself socially to the school group
 9. Extra-curricular interests
- V. Story of child's likes, dislikes, aptitudes
- VI. Miscellaneous items
- VII. *Remedial Program* proposed by the teacher in the light of the information in items I to VI above inclusive, which enables her to understand the child so that she may be more able to win his friendship and help him through better guidance to benefit from his school work

A second type of preconference bulletin is the "directions for testing" sheet sent to teachers. Such a bulletin announces the date of a testing program and gives the teacher specific directions for giving and scoring the tests. The tabulated results become the subject for discussion at later teachers' meetings.

Perhaps the most frequently used and truest type of preconference supervisory bulletin is that which is sent to the teacher before a group conference outlining the problems to be presented, suggesting the preparation to be made by the teacher for the meeting, and suggesting references helpful to the teacher. Such a bulletin assumes the same purpose and position as does the lesson assignment for pupils. The bulletin names the problem for discussion, analyzes it, suggests contributing factors or problems, gives information about certain features of the proposed discussion, indicates activities to be performed by the teachers as preparation for the meeting, and shows them how they may become active participants instead of passive listeners at the group conference.

The following preconference bulletin outlines a series of meetings to consider the problem of securing better preparation of daily work by the teacher. As a matter of actual practice, the material presented would probably be broken up into three or four bulletins—one dealing with the general problem and one before each teachers' meeting.

How may the planning of lessons be done most effectively?

1. *Should teachers be required to plan lessons? Why?* In the case of many teachers lesson planning is absolutely essential to good teaching, and in the case of all teachers it will make for the improvement of teaching because we may expect it to accomplish the following purposes:

1. Clarify thinking
2. Organize material into teachable form
3. Insure familiarity with subject matter
4. Develop the habit of having a worth-while goal
5. Obtain more definite results
6. Economize time and energy

2. *What form of plan will be most effective?* In making preparation for her work with children, the teacher will think of her subject matter first as a whole, then by topics, and finally in terms of daily lessons. When she gets to this point it will be helpful to ask:

What do I expect the children to get out of this lesson?

Am I more interested in having them accumulate facts or in developing ability on their part to think and to form the right attitudes and ideals? Why?

What questions can I ask which will best stimulate the pupils to think and to participate in the lesson?

How can I plan my next assignment properly to guide the children in right habits of study?

1. A teacher should write into a lesson plan only what will be useful to her in her teaching; the degree of detail will depend upon the subject to be taken up, upon the teacher's familiarity with that subject, and upon the training and experience of the teacher.

2. Supervisors do not expect teachers in service to write out daily *detailed* plans. But the teacher's notes of daily preparation should be open to supervisors "serving as an index of work done and of work proposed."

3. Teaching around big problems (sometimes referred to as project teaching) requires that the work be planned in large units. A set form for this type of teaching is detrimental to purposeful work; but it calls for the most careful planning, and *also for a record of class progress*—a record which is both "projective and retrospective."

4. We need a type of daily lesson plan which is not too time-consuming; which works toward a minimum of formal written planning and which gives the teacher the ability to plan lessons "easily and psychologically." When facility is gained, plans can be reduced to a few notes.

5. Whatever the plan, whether for large units of work, or for the daily recitation period, we may evaluate it by means of certain standards of which the following are suggestive:

- (1) The plan should provide for purpose on the part of the teacher and for purpose on the part of the child.
- (2) Some worth-while problems and activities should be indicated.
- (3) The opportunity for planning and thinking on the part of the children should be evident.
- (4) There should not be too many detailed questions or suggestions in the plan.
- (5) There should be some indication of how the subject matter will be clinched, summarized, or drilled.
- (6) There should frequently be statements of possible home and seat assignments.

How may a group of teachers plan their work more effectively? The following series of teachers' meetings will be held in order to discuss the values of planning; to work out procedures based on good psychology; and to share experiences.

First meeting: In preparation for the meeting each teacher is requested to plan in detail a lesson on the same topic in history or geography in order to secure familiarity with the same subject-matter material and to provide a common basis for discussion. At this meeting we hope to reach an agreement on certain standards for evaluating a lesson plan.

Second meeting: As an assignment for the meeting, teachers will be asked to judge two or more mimeographed lesson plans in the light of the standard adopted by the group. As a further assignment, the teachers should consider these questions:

1. Do you believe in the daily planning of lessons? Why?
2. In what respects will daily preparation make for the improvement of teaching?
3. Would you make your daily plans in as much detail as the plans given you for examination and criticism? Why?
4. What form of daily plan do you prefer?
5. What difference do you make in plans for geography and history as compared with plans for spelling and penmanship?
6. Would you plan for more than one day's work at a time? Why?

After observing a demonstration lesson, teachers are asked to prepare a plan of the lesson. The plans prepared by the teachers will then be

compared with that of the teacher who taught the demonstration lesson.

Final Meeting: The following statements on lesson plans were mimeographed and given to teachers before the final meeting. The teachers were asked to evaluate each statement, selecting those they would be willing to accept unconditionally, those they would reject, and those which they would like to modify or amend:

1. No lesson is planned until the teacher does the following:
 - a. Has a definite aim for teaching the lesson
 - b. Knows why the pupils study the lesson
 - c. Becomes familiar with the subject matter
 - d. Selects the essentials and rejects the non-essentials
 - e. Has a good method for presenting the lesson
 - f. Has several good questions she will ask
 - g. Has collected data, materials, references, illustrations
 - h. Has a good summary in mind that can be given quickly
 - i. Has planned the next assignment
2. No good teacher will go before her class without a definite plan of work.
3. The teacher who does not plan her work drifts and gets nowhere.
4. The teacher who has not studied and planned the lesson usually says to her pupils, "You may read the lesson to-day." "Pass to the board," etc.
5. If the teacher has no aim, the class will have no aim.
6. Without a plan a teacher does not know why, how, or what to do.
7. No teacher can succeed this year with her last year's plans.
8. A teacher who has taught one subject for twenty years does not need to make her lesson plans.
9. A lesson plan is for particular subject matter, for particular children, and for particular time. The three are all the time changing.
10. No lesson plan should be destroyed, but kept for reference.
11. Lesson plans must vary to suit: (1) the teacher, (2) the pupils (age, maturity, number in class, etc.), (3) the community, (4) the season, (5) the aim of the recitation, (6) the subject matter, (7) length of the recitation.
12. Teachers who fail frequently do so because they do not plan their work.
13. The best lesson plan is not necessarily the longest one.
14. The teacher should have a definite daily plan, a definite weekly plan, and a general plan for each month and term.
15. No teacher can use another person's plans.
16. The good teacher will carry out her plan to the letter.

17. A good lesson plan is more in the mind than on paper.
18. A good lesson plan can be put on one side of a postal.

The following references were included in the preconference bulletin:

- MOSSMAN, Lois C., *Changing Conceptions Relative to the Planning of Lessons* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924), 72 pp.
- NUTT, H. W., *The Supervision of Instruction* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920), Ch. xii, pp. 171-180.
- BURTON, W. H., *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching* (D. Appleton & Co., 1922), pp. 336, 443-502.
- STRAYER, G. D., *Brief Course in the Teaching Process* (The Macmillan Co., 1911), Ch. xvi.
- GRANT, J. R., *Acquiring Skill in Teaching* (Silver, Burdett & Co., 1922), Ch. iii.
- KILPATRICK, W. H., *The Project Method* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1921).
- DEWEY, John, *How We Think* (D. C. Heath & Co., 1910), Chs. iv, vi, xv.
- HOSIC, J. F., in the *Journal of Educational Method*, articles appearing from September, 1922, to June, 1923.

The follow-up bulletin. This type of supervisory bulletin is prompted by classroom visits, teachers' meetings, demonstration lessons, and testing programs. It is intended to serve the purpose for the teaching group of the entire county that the conference following a classroom visit serves for the individual teacher. It presents constructive suggestions concerning known weaknesses in the entire school system. Methods of diagnosis are presented and typical remedial measures are suggested. Effective teaching procedures that have been used successfully in other schools are detailed. It summarizes the discussions at the teachers' meeting or group conference and makes certain that important conclusions arrived at are not overlooked. Such permanent records of the discussions at conferences carry forward the general supervisory program of the county. They are usually brief and in outline form.

The following bulletin was sent to the teachers of Washing-

ton County, Maryland, after a meeting at which the "supervised study plan of teaching" was discussed. This supplemented the teacher's notes taken at the meeting.

SUPERVISED STUDY PLAN OF TEACHING—How to Conduct Supervised Study

A. Preparation of the teacher

1. The teacher should conceive of supervised study as the effective direction of all the pupil's learning activities.
 - a. Make a definite plan for directing the work. Have command of facts. Know what type of treatment the lesson calls for. Is the problem apparent or not? *Do I know the solution?* What is it? Does the work call for supplementary material?
 - b. Observe the pupils at work to discover their needs.
 - c. Teach them the most economical procedure in that particular type of work.
2. The teacher must have a thorough knowledge of how pupils learn.
3. The teacher should analyze the subject being studied from the viewpoint of the chief types of learning involved and provide for the essential factors of each type.

Example: Arithmetic involves mainly two types of learning:

 - a. Habit forming in learning the fundamentals
 - b. Reflective thinking in the solution of problems
4. The teacher must have as a part of her equipment a definite plan for directing the study of each subject.

B. Organization of a class for supervised study.

1. The class period may well be divided into the following phases, with the time proportioned as needed.
 - a. The assignment to be accomplished during the period must be clear-cut and definite.

This should (1) set definite tasks to be performed, (2) locate and define problems to be solved, (3) give definite directions for study, and (4) provide motivation.
 - b. The pupils' reaction to the assignments. This reaction may consist of silent study with the teacher giving individual help, a coöperative attack upon the problem under the guidance of the teacher, or home study or library work.
 - c. Checking up on the progress of the pupils. This step may take the form of summaries, tests, group discussions, reports of the work accomplished by members of the class, or the clarification of obscure points.

C. Some outstanding features of one recognized type of study plan. (Dalton.)

1. For purposes of the study period the schoolroom serves as a busy workshop. (The reference library is distributed among the rooms according to the subjects of study in the various rooms.)
2. Assignments are made in the form of contracts, challenges, or problems. The success of the plan depends largely upon the character of these assignments.
 - a. They should be in written form and clear and definite.
 - b. There should be a foreword or introduction which will arouse interest and create a desire to attack the exercises, questions, and problems of the assignment.
 - c. Definite questions and problems should be required, references given, and specific suggestions for study included.

Usually the assignment outlines a month's work in each subject but it may be sub-divided into weekly contracts. Further differentiation may be made by setting up levels: minimum, average, and maximum requirements.
3. The teacher maintains favorable conditions of study, explains, instructs, stimulates, and guides. Individual conferences may be held informally between teacher and pupil, or there may be group conferences in which all the pupils working on a certain contract take part.
4. There must be a definite system of checking on the progress of the pupils. (a) Written reports may be required and tests may be given to a group completing a definite assignment. (b) Individual work may be inspected by the teacher and criticism and suggestions offered. (c) The general progress of each pupil may be recorded on a graph kept by the teachers. (A similar graph may be kept by each pupil.)

Follow-up bulletins are of value after the teaching of a demonstration lesson. The bulletin gives the objective of the lesson, the demonstration teacher's plan, the outstanding features of the lesson such as the creative work of pupils or unique factors in the presentation, the analysis of the demonstration lesson by the conference group, criticism of the technique, and conclusions arrived at. Sometimes it is possible to present the entire lesson by obtaining a stenographic report of it with summarizing comments. Demonstration teaching is not a valuable supervisory procedure

unless the work is carefully analyzed and its worth-while contributions crystallized in the form of a suitable follow-up bulletin.

Attention has been called to the bulletin of directions that precedes a testing program. Even more valuable is the bulletin summarizing the results of testing. It presents the tabulated findings in the form of tables of score distributions, ranking of questions in order of difficulty on the basis of the number of times missed, analyses of difficulties, grade and school ranges, remedial measures proposed, illustrations of remedial procedures, and so on. Such a bulletin is invaluable to the teacher. It furnishes a check on teaching and learning and suggests the imperfectly and inadequately learned skills. After an analysis of 263 eighth-grade spelling papers based upon words taken from the Iowa Spelling Scale, the Wisconsin State Division of Educational Tests sent out a preliminary bulletin giving (a) words misspelled, (b) typical misspellings, (c) total number of times each word was misspelled, number of times each syllable of each word was misspelled, and the character and frequency of the errors. A portion of this follow-up bulletin ² is reproduced below.

PRELIMINARY REPORT ON ERRORS IN SPELLING

In 1923 a request was sent out from the Division of Measurements for spelling papers to be used as a basis for a study of errors. Approximately 8,000 papers were received from 10 cities and villages involving 27 schools. The labor necessary in working up spelling errors is quite exacting and enough help has not been available to complete the task. This preliminary report is issued now, however, to avoid further delay. We hope to send out a complete report later on. The present circular deals with the eighth-grade papers only and even with these it was necessary to take samplings. Every fifth paper was taken. The per cents are subject therefore to a slight variation from their true values. The probable amount of these variations is indicated after each per cent. The total number of papers in Grade 8 was 1,315. The number actually studied was 263. The words used were the fifth in the eighth-grade list of the Iowa Spelling Scale. The results are summarized in Table 1.

² W. J. Osborn, *Preliminary Report on Errors in Spelling*, mimeographed bulletin issued by the Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction.

TABLE 1.—TYPICAL MISSPELLINGS

Word	Typical Misspellings	Total Misspellings	Number of Typical Misspellings
absolutely	absolutly	90	53
acquire	aquire	80	58
administrator	administrater	72	27
advisable	adviseable	63	30
agricultural	agricultueal	47	4
announcement	anouncement	105	51
annual	anual	43	30
appreciation	apreciation	52	6
arrangement	arangement	75	28
	arrangement		28
assume	asume	67	25
athletics	atheletics	91	44
ballot	balot		8

TABLE 2.—MISSPELLINGS BY SYLLABLES

Word	Number of Times Each Syllable Was Misspelled					Total
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	
absolutely	none	14	87	15		116
acquire	68	15				83
administrator	1	15	35	17	45	113
advisable	none	40	26	1		67
agricultural	3	20	13	18	24	78
announcement	none	101	7			108
annual	1	37	9			47
appreciation	none	28	28	7	6	83
arrangement	none	75	none			75
assume	83	67				70
athletics	3	85	17			105
ballot	2	33				35

An inspection of the table shows that some syllables are very much more likely to be missed than others. It follows therefore that the difficult syllables should be watched by the children. It would be a good thing for teachers to call particular attention to all the syllables which are italicized in the following words: *Abso-lute-ly*, *ac-quire*, *ad-min-is-tra-tor*, *ad-vis-able*, *ag-ri-cult-u-ral*, *an-nounce-ment*, *an-nu-al*, *ap-pre-ci-ation*, *ar-range-ment*, *as-sume*, *ath-let-ics*, *bal-lot*, *ba-sis*, *cat-a-logue*, *cer-tifi-cate*, *con-se-quent-ly*, *con-sul-tation*, *cor-re-spond*, *coun-cil*, *dis-ap-point*, *enor-mous*, *ex-cel-lent*, *exten-sion*, *fam-ili-ar*, *has-ti-ly*, *in-di-vid-ual*, *in-qui-ries*, *inter-fere*, *leg-is-la-tion*, *lit-er-a-ture*, *los-ing*, *mech-an-ical*, *mere-ly*, *natur-al-ly*, *nec-es-sary*, *offi-ci-al*, *or-ig-in-al*, *prac-tic-al-ly*, *prep-eration*, *prob-a-bly*, *re-lieved*, *re-sponse*, *sci-ence*, *sense*, *straightened*, *super-in-tend-ent*.

Table 3 shows how the errors may be classified.

TABLE 3.—CHARACTER AND FREQUENCY OF THE ERRORS

Errors	Frequency, per cent	Probable Error, per cent
Failure to hear and pronounce the word correctly	25	2
Substitution of one vowel for another	18	1.7
Single for double consonant	16	1.7
Omission of silent final <i>e</i>	11	1.4
Omission of syllables	9	1.3
Substituting <i>s</i> for <i>c</i> (soft)	4	.8
Double for single consonants	3	.8
Using <i>tion</i> for <i>sion</i>	3	.8
Omission of consonants other than parts of doubles	2	.6
Insertion of syllables	2	.6
Miscellaneous	7	1.2

The per cents in the right-hand column show the probable error arising from considering only one-fifth of the papers.

From the size of these frequencies it is evident that about 80 per cent of the trouble will be removed if some method can be discovered of dealing with the five largest types of error. Without going into detail it seems certain that much more emphasis must be placed on speech and hearing defects. This is without doubt the most important single thing to do. It is easy to imagine the havoc which can be wrought with the children's spelling when the teacher herself does not enunciate well. Children cannot spell words that they cannot hear. The same cause seems to be back of the omission and insertion of syllables. It seems likely that certain spelling rules are applicable with few exceptions when one is trying to teach a particular list such as that of Ayres. The Division of Measurements expects to enter into the question of remedial treatment more fully in a future circular.

After some time has been spent in field visitation of classrooms it is often of value to summarize the observations of the supervisor through the medium of a follow-up bulletin. Any one who is a constant visitor of classrooms soon discovers that teachers' difficulties follow well developed patterns. The "new" teacher without experience meets certain types of difficulties; the difficulties of the experienced teacher are different and distinctive. The Bureau of Supervisory Service of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin, has made a study of these difficulties

based in part on supervisory visits. The list of difficulties taken from a recent bulletin ³ is as follows:

CLASSIFICATION OF DIFFICULTIES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

Control over pupils

- General discipline
- Discipline in large classes
- Discipline with junior high school boys
- Proper relations between teacher and pupils
- Lack of control
- Creating the proper attitude on the part of pupils
- Distinction between freedom and disorder
- Handling problem cases
- Methods of punishment

Presentation of subject matter

- How to present subject matter effectively
- Special methods of teaching different subjects
- Teaching on the pupils' level

Motivation

- Motivating work
- Motivating slow sections
- Motivating study
- Keeping pupils busy
- Providing interesting material

Adjustment of teacher to classroom conditions

- Lack of poise in the classroom
- Change from student to teacher
- Keeping a teacher's point of view

Providing for individual differences

- Understanding individual pupils
- Adjusting work to class ability
- Ability grouping
- Helping slow pupils
- Providing for individuals
- Using the contract plan
- Using differentiated assignments

³ T. L. Torgerson, "Difficulties of Beginning Teachers," mimeographed bulletin (Bureau of Supervisory Service, School of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1929.)

Conditions of work

- Inadequate reference books and materials
- Absence of course of study
- Absence of textbooks
- Too large and too many classes
- Too many extracurricular duties

Organization of work and materials

- Organizing courses
- Organizing work in units
- Organizing work in relation to time allotment
- Correlating work in different courses

Measuring achievement

- Constructing tests
- Grading

Teacher and pupil participation in the recitation

- Questioning
- Guiding discussion effectively
- Proportionate amount of teacher and pupil activity

Standards of work—How much to expect of pupils

Lesson planning

- Making daily plans
- Planning in advance
- Planning the right amount of work for each lesson

Administrative details

- Acquaintance with school routine
- Making reports, attendance records, and so on

Teaching study technique

- Teaching pupils how to study
- Teaching pupils to work independently

Teacher preparation

- Lack of knowledge of subject matter
- Lack of professional training

Classroom procedure

The handling of routine

- Checking written work, grading papers, etc.

Relations with supervisors

- Inadequate supervision
- Fear of supervisors

Objectives of teaching

Personal character of teacher—tact, sympathy, judgment, initiative, interest, etc.

Emphasis on subject matter rather than on pupils

Teachers' relations with school and community

Do not realize general responsibility to school

Do not realize responsibility to community

Adjustment to the social life of the community

Careless expression of opinions outside of school

Use of instructional materials—failure to use materials properly

Supervisory bulletins dealing with *How to Construct Informal Objective Tests*, *The Improvement of Written Examinations*, *Symptoms of Maladjustment with Suggested Causes and Remedies* illustrate the types of helpful materials that have been sent to teachers to aid them in meeting the problems of teaching more effectively.

The progress bulletin. While a supervisory program is in progress, it is of value to send to teachers from time to time general bulletins retailing effective teaching devices, calling attention to some outstanding piece of teaching in the county, giving detailed instructions concerning the development of a new unit, suggesting references of value to the teacher, explaining by an outline of work certain details of the course of study, illustrating the technique of some general method of teaching and so on. Such bulletins, since they do not relate definitely to teachers' meetings, have been here classified as *progress* bulletins. The term "general supervisory bulletins" might describe them, but does not show their place in a program of supervision. Classified examples of progress bulletins follow:

1. *Helping teachers to construct objective tests.* The Supervisory Service Bureau of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin, found that the teachers in the field needed help in the construction of informal objective examinations. A bulletin covering this problem was prepared and distributed. The bulletin pointed out and illustrated the variability of the traditional ex-

amination, pointed out the characteristics of a good examination, listed the advantages of informal objective examinations, giving illustrations, told how to construct them, explained the method of analysis of test results, and concluded with a selected list of books and bulletins pertaining to such examinations. A portion of the bulletin ⁴ is reproduced below:

HOW TO CONSTRUCT OBJECTIVE EXAMINATIONS

Great care must be exercised in the construction of examinations if they are to be made objective, reliable, and valid. It is not advisable for a teacher to attempt to construct objective tests in all her subjects at the same time; she should concentrate on one subject at a time. Detailed steps are hereby suggested to the teacher who is unfamiliar with the general technique of test construction.

- I. Determine the scope of the examination.
 1. Select the subject (history, English, civics, arithmetic, etc.) in which testing is to be done.
 2. Select a unit of the subject (Colonial period in American history, "Treasure Island" in English, local government in civics, etc.) upon which to concentrate.
- II. Determine the objectives of the examination, and construct a test that measures these objectives. Four kinds of tests with the purpose that each is intended to serve are given below:
 1. Inventory test—Previous knowledge or skill that the pupils have
 2. Prognostic test—Likelihood of the pupil's success in an untried subject field
 3. Achievement test—The pupil's mastery of the work after definite educational procedures have been followed
 4. Diagnostic test—Location of educational procedures which have failed to secure satisfactory results
- III. Make a topical outline of the unit selected
 1. Make a list of the topics within the unit, arranged in the order of their importance
 2. Arrange the facts under each topic in the order of their importance

⁴ T. L. Torgerson and others, "How to Construct Informal Objective Tests," mimeographed bulletin (Supervisory Service Bureau, School of Education, University of Wisconsin), 1929, pp. 11-13.

IV. Decide on the type of item—Question and statement

1. Select those which will best conform to the objectives and the subject matter

Note: Several types of questions or statements may be used in the same examination.

V. Construct and arrange the test items

Note: Keep in mind (a) The objectives of the examination;

(b) The characteristics of the content involved; and

(c) The several types of test items.

1. Formulate the test items. (True-false, multiple choice, etc.)

Note: Provide a minimum of 50 items

2. Arrange the test items in their order of difficulty

Note: Some of the items should be so easy that the dullest pupil will receive a score and some of them so difficult that the brightest pupil will fail to make a perfect score.

VI. Prepare instructions for pupils

1. Make up specific directions for guidance of pupils

2. Include typical test items and acceptable answers as examples

VII. Develop "key" for grading

1. Work out answers for all test items

These should be simple, easily understood, and to the point

2. Devise mechanical arrangement for answers

Proper arrangement of answers makes for speed and accuracy in grading

VIII. Determine the time element involved

1. Test items fixed; time to be determined

2. Time fixed; number of test items to be determined;

(a) Recall type 4- 8 items per minute

(b) Recognition type 6-10 " " "

(c) True-false type 10-15 " " "

IX. Provide duplicate test sheets

Note: Each pupil should be supplied with his own copy of the test upon which he should record his answers to the several test items.

2. *Outlines of work.* Practice varies concerning the development of county courses of study. In many counties the state

course of study is used. In some counties there has been developed a separate course of study. In either case it is customary for the supervisor to send out to teachers outlines of work to supplement the course of study. These outlines suggest instructional materials to be used collaterally with the textbook, local topics to be discussed, work to be covered during the month or term, and so on.

3. *Retailing teaching techniques.* The progress bulletin is used to indicate to teachers what is to be taught and how to teach it. While it aims to improve the quality of instruction, at its worst it often suggests imitation. The teacher becomes the agency through whom the supervisor carries out her ideas. While such a procedure undoubtedly results in better teaching, it does not provide for teacher growth. She becomes dependent upon the supervisor and looks to her for detailed instruction rather than guidance. Here we have the master mind pulling the strings that animate the marionettes. This need not be true of this type of bulletin. Such a bulletin may illustrate a number of methods of accomplishing results. Teachers are urged to experiment, to use various approaches for advantageous repetition. The bulletin that follows suggests a legitimate type. Teachers had discussed with the supervisor the unit plan of teaching. A specific unit was being taught. The supervisor suggested, by means of the bulletin, seven distinct methods of summarizing the unit. Teachers were not told which one to use. Each is of value and undoubtedly several methods of summarizing should be used for the same unit of work.

TYPES OF CLASS SUMMARIES FOR NOTEBOOKS—*History*—Grade 3

Unit of Work: "Pilgrim Life."

1. *Class Story*

The Pilgrims

Long ago some English people became very unhappy. Their king wished them to go to his church. These people wanted to worship God as they pleased. They were willing to leave England, their home land, that they

might have their own church. They called themselves Pilgrims because they wandered from their old home.

2. Questionnaire

Answer with one word

The Pilgrims in Holland

1. Where did the Pilgrims go when they left England?
2. How did the Dutch people treat the Pilgrims?
3. What language did the little Pilgrim boys and girls soon learn?
4. What language did the Pilgrim fathers and mothers wish them to speak?
5. Where did the Pilgrims decide to go when they left Holland?

3. Outline

The Voyage

1. The Pilgrim boats
 - a. The Mayflower
 - b. The Speedwell
 - c. The Speedwell sprung a leak, went back to land
 - d. The Mayflower kept on
2. The people on board the Mayflower
 - a. One hundred one men, women and children
 - b. Captain Miles Standish among the group
3. Hardships
 - a. The voyage proved long, cold, and rough
 - b. Storms shook the little ship
 - c. Children grew tired
 - d. Many people became sick, some died
4. Two baby boys are born
 - a. Mothers give them queer names
Oceanus Hopkins
Peregrine White

4. Chart

The Landing of the Pilgrims

Where	When	When they left the ship	Why had they stayed on ship	How did they reach the shore
On Plymouth Rock	1620	Christmas Day	So men could find out about new country	Rowed in a small boat

5. *Matching Phrases Under Headings*

Making the New Homes

*Activities**The Pilgrim men
and boys**The Pilgrim women
and girls*

cut down the huge trees
 worked in the forest
 cooking and sewing
 spinning and knitting
 washing and ironing
 trimmed off the branches
 made the log house
 cleared the ground
 hunted for game
 fished in the harbor

6. *Write sentences telling "Who"*

were the early friends of the Pilgrims
 taught the Pilgrims how to fish
 taught them how to plant corn
 carried water for the women
 would the Pilgrims invite for their feast
 shot the turkeys for the feast
 made the pies and puddings
 dug the clams
 came dressed in blankets
 had feathers in their hair
 thanked God for his goodness

7. *A Series of Pictures*

The Mayflower	A Pilgrim	Map showing Eng- land and Leyden (Holland)	Pilgrim cabin	An Indian	Pilgrim furniture
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4. *Stimulating teacher growth.* If the supervisory bulletin is to become a constructive agency for the improvement of teachers, it must provide for teacher growth. It must capitalize the teachers' abilities, secure their coöperation, suggest elements of strength, and encourage initiative. Such a bulletin is an extension of the personality of the supervisor. It talks to the teacher about her problems, suggests lines of activity, mentions appropriate

articles in magazines and forward-looking books. It sets up definite goals, suggests procedure for reaching these goals, and tests for measuring the progress made.

5. *Presenting related activities.* A great deal of rural supervision is done indirectly. The county nurse, the boys' and girls' club leader, agricultural agent, and other county educational employees influence the work of the school. Pig clubs, calf clubs, canning clubs, and corn clubs are organized. The work of these clubs correlates directly with the work of the school. These activities are encouraged by the county supervisory officers; and organization notices, notices of meetings, contests, prizes, awards, and so on, are sent to teachers from the county superintendent's office.

The progress bulletin becomes the voice of the supervisor talking to teachers working over an area of several hundred square miles. The supervisor is broadcasting. Properly prepared, this type of bulletin carries a message of good cheer and encouragement. It urges the teacher to attack her problems with confidence. It gives sufficient help to enable the teacher to pioneer without fear. It praises the teacher whose initiative has opened up new pedagogical paths.

Criteria for evaluating supervisory bulletins. No great progress will be made in the preparation of worth-while supervisory bulletins until criteria for evaluating them are set up. Since these bulletins are agencies of supervision, it is suggested that as a first crude measure we apply to them the same standards used in evaluating other supervisory activities. Some of these standards expressed in the form of questions are presented below. These questions are proposed as criteria for supervisory bulletins. Although it is to be understood that a bulletin, in order to be valuable as an instrument in supervision, need not conform to all of the criteria suggested, it should embody one or more of them, depending upon its purpose. The criteria suggested are to be scored positively when answered by the bulletin in the affirmative.

1. Does the bulletin keep before the teacher specific standards of attainment?
2. Does the bulletin suggest devices and procedures for arriving at the standards?
3. Does the bulletin contain devices which some teachers have tried out with success?
4. Does the bulletin give reports of experiments which have been tried out successfully?
5. Does the bulletin commend the good work being done?
6. Does the bulletin encourage experimentation and initiative?
7. Does the bulletin make allowance for individual variation?
8. Is the bulletin sympathetic in tone?
9. Does the bulletin describe completely the administration of tests to be used in measuring progress?
10. Does the bulletin interpret the results of previous tests and compare these results with the standards for the various grades?
11. Does the bulletin suggest significant problems for solution and experimentation?
12. Does the bulletin suggest good technique of classroom instruction?
13. Does it help establish good teaching habits?
14. Does the bulletin set forth devices for analysis of the recitation?
15. Does the bulletin state the standards for judging instruction as a basis for self-analysis?
16. Is the bulletin suggestive rather than prescriptive?
17. Does the bulletin refer to books and periodicals that throw light on:
 - a. Purpose and aims of education?
 - b. Nature and processes of learning?
 - c. Nature and function of method?
 - d. Nature and function of subject matter?
18. Does the bulletin suggest how this material can be applied to class work?

An evaluation of supervisory bulletins. Using the criteria suggested above, 1,583 rural supervisory bulletins were evaluated and classified. Of these, 1,081 or 68.3 per cent were entirely administrative in character and dealt with routine matters. An analysis of the remaining 31.7 per cent, which are supervisory, follows.

Of the bulletins that may be considered as supervisory in character, those suggesting good techniques lead the list. This is

TABLE XIX.—ANALYSIS OF 31.7 PER CENT OF 1,583 RURAL SUPERVISORY BULLETINS

KINDS OF BULLETINS	FREQUENCY	PER CENT
Bulletins which set up specific standards of attainment....	108	6.8 *
Bulletins which suggest procedures for reaching standards	59	3.2
Bulletins detailing procedures used successfully by teachers	15	1.0
Bulletins giving reports of successful experiments	3	0.2
Bulletins commending good work	32	2.1
Bulletins suggesting or encouraging research	25	1.7
Bulletins suggesting problems for experimentation	14	1.0
Bulletins describing the administration of tests	21	1.4
Bulletins interpreting the results of tests	16	1.0
Bulletins suggesting good techniques	144	9.0
Bulletins helping to establish good housekeeping	42	2.8
Bulletins suggesting criteria for evaluating recitations and for judging instruction	3	0.2
Bulletins making reference to books and magazines for the improvement of teaching	1	0.1
Total	502	31.7

* The per cents are based upon the total number of bulletins of all types examined.

to be expected because of the great number of inexperienced and meagerly prepared teachers. Following this come the bulletins that set up specific standards of attainment. This is undoubtedly a contribution of the testing movement and indicates an increasing practice of placing before pupils and teachers a definite program of work and goals of attainment. Procedures for reaching the goals are suggested in fifty-nine bulletins placing this type third on the list, with good housekeeping bulletins fourth in rank. The numbers of bulletins of other classes are small showing on the part of supervisors an inadequate conception of the possibilities of such supervisory agencies.

Teachers' reactions to supervisory bulletins. Jungck ⁵ asked fifty teachers in Clark County, Wisconsin, their opinions of the October 1926 issue of the *Clark County Bulletin*. They men-

⁵ F. W. Jungck, *Possibilities of Bulletins as an Agency in Rural School Supervision*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1927, p. 20.

tioned five articles that they considered valuable. These are given below with their rank as determined by the number of times mentioned:

<i>Title of Article</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Suggestions for seatwork	1
Grammar outline for 7th and 8th grades.....	3
Suggestive procedures in oral reading.....	2
Plan for teaching writing	4
Plan for teaching spelling	5

All of the teachers replying stated that the bulletins were helpful to them. Some specific reactions are as follows:

"It helped me make my daily lesson plans."

"It solved some penmanship problems for me."

"The suggested seatwork was very helpful."

"The silent-reading devices were very helpful."

"I made good use of the suggested plan for teaching spelling."

"They serve as a measure to test the up-to-dateness of our teaching."

"They help to bring about the needed coöperation of school boards, teachers, and county superintendents."

"It gives the teacher an incentive."

"They serve as a constant guide and I would be at a loss without them."

"Bulletins help break up the isolation by giving one an idea of what others are doing and what is expected of him."

"I know the methods suggested in the bulletins are approved by the county superintendent and hence I feel free to use them."

The reactions of teachers indicate that they are concerned primarily with meeting the requirements of supervisors and that they are not discriminating in their evaluations. They appear to value most those bulletins detailing specific procedures that they can use. Such bulletins do not, necessarily, contribute to teacher growth.

The value of supervisory bulletins as stated by rural supervisors. Ninety supervisors of rural schools were asked to give their opinions of the value of bulletins as agencies of supervision. A summary of their statements follows.

1. *They are very valuable in that they simplify the follow-up*

problem. In urban schools the supervisor may visit a teacher on successive days for as long a period as she deems advisable. Conferences may follow these visits and an actual check-up of teacher progress be made. In rural districts schools are so far apart that such a series of visits is impossible. The bulletin takes the place of this series of visits. The supervisor must project herself into the classroom through the bulletin, place her finger upon difficulties common to a number of schools and suggest methods of solution.

2. *All teachers can be reached at the same time.* The bulletin is a time-saver. Conferences may be held with one hundred teachers at the same time through the supervisory bulletin. It multiplies the ability of the supervisor.

3. *Bulletins may be filed for future reference.* Teachers may forget or overlook the suggestions made in a conference with the supervisor. The bulletin is a constant reminder of these suggestions. Teachers may check off suggestions on the bulletin, indicate those that they accept, and reserve for trial and conference others with which they take issue.

4. *Bulletins help to supplement the course of study.* At its best the course of study is merely a framework. It usually lacks a body of content. The bulletin may be used to supply this content drawn from community sources. Through supplementary county bulletins adding local content, state courses of study become more valuable.

5. *After a county survey of general difficulties has been made, bulletins serve as a splendid means of providing suggestions of a remedial nature.* A testing program often reveals certain rather general weaknesses in school work. The bulletin reaches all teachers at the same time with remedial suggestions.

6. *The work of the entire county can be systematized by means of supervisory bulletins.* This has its elements of weakness as well as of strength. Systematization often smothers initiative and individuality. Nevertheless higher levels of work are maintained through standardization of results than without it. Many

supervisors insist that systematization and standardization of teaching brings about a lead level of mediocrity that is higher than the lowest level possible, but also is lower than the highest individual level possible. Setting up standards or levels of work need not prevent the individual teacher reaching as high as her ability will permit.

7. *The good in teaching can be made "contagious" to all.* The bulletin offers a splendid opportunity to call attention to the good work done by teachers. Copies of plans and outlines prepared by teachers, stenographic reports of superior units of teaching, remedial measures used effectively, and so on, may be mimeographed and sent to all teachers. This acts as a stimulant for teachers and inspires them to produce results worthy of such favorable notice.

8. *Bulletins inspire teachers because they feel in closer touch with supervisors.* The rural teacher is professionally isolated. She has no colleagues with whom she can discuss her problems. She sees the supervisor infrequently. The bulletin brings her in professional touch with her supervisor. By means of it the supervisor talks to her about their common problems. It helps to remove the feeling of professional isolation that often prompts the teacher to leave her position at the close of the year and seek one which will provide her with vocational comradeship.

No comments unfavorable to the bulletin were made by rural supervisors. They were in agreement as to its value. Their reactions indicate its frequent use as an agency for giving instructions to teachers. To the extent to which it does merely this it fails to realize its full possibilities.

Summary. The bulletin in the past has been used largely for administrative purposes. Its development as an instrument of supervision has proceeded rapidly because through it the supervisor can reach all the teachers of the county at one time, can develop a file of recommendations for future use, can supplement the course of study, and can make teachers' meetings more effective. As yet the supervisory bulletin is a very imperfect

instrument capable of doing a great deal of harm as well as good. The degree to which it contributes to teacher growth depends largely upon the character of the material presented and the supervisor's philosophy of supervision. Rightly conceived and skillfully prepared, it is of value in suggesting the preparation of teachers for group conferences, in initiating, reporting and following up testing programs, in calling attention to good teaching wherever observed, in reporting the progress of supervisory programs, in analyzing and evaluating demonstration teaching, in aiding teachers to solve their teaching problems, and in guiding teachers in diagnostic and remedial instruction. The present chapter has classified, discussed, and illustrated bulletins of three types: (a) the preconference bulletin; (b) the follow-up bulletin; (c) the "progress" bulletin.

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CHAPTER XII

MAKING AND INTERPRETING THE COURSE OF STUDY

Supervision is more than visiting teachers in their classrooms and conferring with them individually and in groups. As interpreted in the *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence,¹ "Supervision has for its object the development of a group of professional workers who attack their problems scientifically, free from the control of tradition and actuated by the spirit of inquiry. It seeks to provide an environment in which men and women of high professional ideals may live a vigorous, intelligent, creative life."

The building and remodeling of the curriculum is one of the most important means at the disposal of the supervisor for accomplishing the high aim of supervision as thus stated in the yearbook. Teacher participation in course-of-study making under competent supervisory leadership insures "the *development* of a group of professional workers." Interpreting the course of study and modifying it to meet the social changes in an ever-changing world demand that the professional workers be "actuated by the spirit of inquiry." Consistently using the course of study and yet keeping it alive and dynamic requires that the professional workers be "vigorous, intelligent, and creative."

The rural curriculum requires a different organization of subject matter. The curriculum should meet the needs of children and of organized society. One need is that there be less cleavage between rural and urban communities. "Keep boys and girls on the farm" is a dangerous slogan. So far as the basic objectives and

¹ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930, p. 9.

basic principles of the elementary-school curriculum are concerned, they are the same for all schools, whether rural or urban; but the conditions under which many rural teachers must work may sometimes require a somewhat different organization of subject matter and selection of illustrative material. Many rural children are housed in small schools where the equipment, by comparison with that in large graded buildings, is meager. The experiences of these rural children are often limited by a narrow environment. There are many over-age, retarded children in rural schools whose mental level is far beyond the level of the grade in which, by reason of poor achievement, they find themselves. Often the short-term school year complicates the situation for rural children. Immature teachers who serve their apprenticeship in the rural schools teach these children. Many teachers teach from three to eight grades. Many of these teachers are serving in the rural schools for the purpose of securing sufficient experience to admit them to urban school systems. For these reasons it is evident that the poorest trained, the least permanent, and the poorest paid teachers are given the most difficult job in education to do, the job of teaching in the rural school.

Rural curricula influenced by the results of scientific investigations. Rural schools need courses of study adjusted to the conditions that have just been enumerated. It is just as important that the courses of study used in rural schools exemplify the results of scientific investigations and educational thinking as it is that courses of study used in urban schools exemplify such results. In the first place, supervisors who are guiding the planning and making of courses of study for rural schools must keep abreast of the times—must constantly study in order to secure a perspective upon world happenings and human needs. In respect to elementary science and the social studies teachers must have much more than a cursory knowledge of the important things going on in the world of thought and action. In the second place, in order for rural-school courses of study to be in line with good modern educational thinking and practice, supervisors will do

well to scrutinize such courses continually in respect to the following criteria:

1. Is this course of study meeting the needs of those who are using it? Dr. Ernest Horn,² chairman of the executive committee which organized and directed the course of study for the state of Iowa, thus summarizes the problems involved in this question of meeting teacher needs, whether considered from the point of view of a state course of study committee or a county course of study committee:

From the beginning the various committees faced squarely the difficulty of making a course of study, first, which could be used by rural teachers and by teachers in graded systems; second, which would be of the greatest help not only to the inexperienced teachers but also to the experienced teachers; third, which could be used with a variety of textbooks; and fourth, which would be within the number of pages which could be printed.

The difficulty of making a course of study to serve both rural and graded schools arises not so much out of differences in the subject matter which should be taught in these two types of schools as out of the differences in the administrative problems involved in teaching in the two types of schools.

2. Have the aims and objectives been evaluated in terms of a workable philosophy of education? If objectives are clearly stated and thoughtfully accepted, it is probable that teaching techniques will not go very far wrong. The following statement of cardinal objectives in elementary schools represents the consensus of a number of teachers and supervisors in New York State.³

It is the function of the public elementary school to help every child:

1. To understand and practice desirable social relationships
2. To discover and develop his own desirable individual aptitudes

² *Course of Study for Elementary Schools* (Iowa Department of Public Instruction, 1928), p. 10.

³ *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education*, second report prepared by the Committee on Elementary Education of the New York Council of Superintendents, 1929, p. 13.

3. To cultivate the habit of critical thinking
4. To appreciate and desire worth-while activities
5. To gain command of the common integrating knowledge and skills
6. To develop a sound body and normal mental attitudes

The key words to the foregoing statement of objectives are respectively: Social relationships, self-expression, critical thinking, worth-while activities, knowledge and skills, health.

Such objectives reveal an underlying educational philosophy that can well serve as a guide in the selection of teaching techniques and materials. Such a set of objectives may serve not only as objectives but also as criteria of teaching activities both for the experienced and the inexperienced teacher.

3. Is this course of study sufficiently rich and extensive in content? It should supply or else definitely indicate a wide range of materials for each grade, material selected and arranged in accordance with the findings of scientific research, in so far as this is conclusive. This wide range of content permits teachers to select material suitable to the varying abilities of different classes and pupils.

4. Is this course of study in line with improved teaching techniques? Methods and procedures of proved value should be indicated and illustrated by organizing subject matter for a larger or better teaching unit, or by describing type lessons. Approaches to subject matter in terms of children's local interests, experiences, and environment should be suggested. Ways of using varied types of instructional material should be given.

5. Does this course of study contain suggestive lists of pupil activities or experiences which will enable pupils to achieve the objectives set up? Learning is active, not passive. When children *do something* that requires thinking, learning takes place. The activities and experiences should be selected from those activities in which pupils spontaneously or whole-heartedly engage. They should be graded in accordance with the pupils' present interests, needs, and capacities.

6. Does this course of study suggest methods of determining

how well pupils are mastering the material being taught? Objective classroom tests that are standardized or informal reveal the individual difficulties of pupils in the various school subjects and often point the way to effective means of giving pupils help in overcoming their weaknesses. It may be well to include informal tests designed to measure certain outcomes of some subject or phase of the subject. If we are interested in making desirable changes in children as well as in teaching facts, we must not only test scholastic attainments, but must devise means for determining the answers to such questions as the following:

Is the pupil learning how to study?

Is he developing a higher regard for accuracy?

Is he forming new and broader interests?

Is he acquiring attitudes of sympathy, courtesy, honesty, and kindness?

Is he developing a taste for reading books that are worth while?

Does he accept responsibility for assigned tasks?

A close interrelationship exists between the growth of teachers and the growth of the course of study, each factor being dependent upon the other, and both factors being dependent upon competent supervision.

Procedures in curriculum construction. Some concrete examples of practical procedures in course-of-study making will serve to indicate how the curriculum may be a potent supervisory instrument for the improvement of teaching.

1. *The Carroll County, Maryland, procedure.* The following brief account⁴ shows how the teachers of Carroll County, Maryland, in 1925-26, under the guidance of their supervisor, carried out a program of work on the course of study in the social studies for primary grades. It indicates the plan of committee organization, the scope and arrangement of the course, the procedures in connection with collecting material, trying out material, and organizing material, and the part played by teacher and supervisor.

⁴ Lula H. Crim, "A Supervisor of Town Schools Analyses Her Work," *Maryland School Bulletin*, October, 1926, pp. 40-41.

Last year a tentative course of study in the social studies for the primary grades was worked out by the teachers, this work being a carry-over from the efforts of the preceding year.

All but a few primary teachers in the schools of the county had some part in its making. Every grade had its chairman. Each grade chairman had working with her four subchairmen, with a committee of four to each subchairman.

This tentative course of study outlined the work of the grades in large blocks, by seasons in Grades 1, 2, and 3, and by bimonthly periods in Grade 4. It contained lesson procedures, subject matter in content and in outline, suggested problems and activities, and a bibliography.

The following year, at the preliminary conference, this tentative course of study was given to the teachers, at which time each grade chairman outlined the work of her grade to the teachers. The teachers were advised to adhere very closely to this tentative course, keeping all lesson plans, with all suggestions for changes, additions, and subtractions, however negligible they might seem.

The same committees were reappointed, with but few changes, to put this course of study into a more permanent form this year.

In February a letter was sent to all the primary teachers of the county, reminding them that the data on this course of study asked for at the preliminary conference should soon be ready to be sent to the several chairmen. From the beginning of the year some teachers had been working on specially assigned topics.

In April all data were called in by the subchairmen who compiled the material, and sent it in to their grade chairmen. The grade chairmen met in turn with the supervisors, at which time all material was gone over. The worth-while material was filed. That which needed to be clarified, worked out in fuller detail, or corrected in part, was returned with suggestions for remedying it.

In May the four grade chairmen again met with the supervisors, each in a two days' session, substitute teachers being put into their school-rooms. At this time all material was compiled, the course of study taking in large part its present form.

All courses of study in use in the schools were mimeographed on perforated paper, thus making them loose-leafed and easily added to or changed.

This course of study included four subjects: history, geography, nature study, and civics. In form it followed the tentative course in large measure. The work of each grade was outlined in large blocks; in time units—Grades 1, 2, 3 in three-month periods, and Grade 4 in two-month periods. Each grade course contained a statement of objectives; grade

goals; suggestions in the form of content, outlined material, lesson procedure, problems, and activities in content or in outline; standards of attainment; some attitudes and ideals that should be built up; and a bibliography.

2. *The Iowa procedure.* In Iowa during the school year 1927-28 the major project in the program of education was the preparation of a new elementary course of study for the state. At a general meeting of all the members serving on course of study committees, Dr. Ernest Horn, as executive chairman, after outlining the objectives of the course of study and the procedure to be followed by the committees, made the following suggestions for securing uniformity in the committee reports:⁵

The executive committee feels that the course of study will be much more unified and usable if each committee will organize its report under the headings which are given below. These headings should stand out in your manuscript and should be numbered as here indicated.

Main heading

The name of the subject of your report in capitals, bold face.

Example: **SPELLING**

A. General introductory statement

This should include a preliminary statement of what the course intends to do. It would be well to have this statement written in lay language. It would be advantageous to have these general aims so effectively written that they could be used for publication in newspapers.

B. Equipment needed

There should be some general directions, not over a page in length, dealing with the books and materials necessary for the proper teaching of this subject.

C. Suggestions for teaching

There should be a statement of general methods, which should occupy not more than two or three pages. This statement should call the particular attention of teachers to the fact that important decisions with regard to methods are made so far as possible on the basis of the

⁵ Agnes Samuelson, "The Organization of the Iowa Elementary Course of Study," *The Elementary School Journal*, February, 1929, pp. 416-419.

results of research. In addition to general methods, there should be given typical exercises or teaching devices which can be used in any grade. These should be few, concrete, and brief, such as a plan for correcting spelling and other mechanical blunders in written work or a plan for teaching a poetry lesson. There should be a clear, plain discussion of the importance of children's purposes and how to get them set up.

D. The course of study by years. This should be organized as follows:

1. Essential subject matter

The essential content of each year's work should represent the best selection and emphasis that modern curriculum theory, research, and practice make possible. In the outline of content only items of great permanent value should appear. Wherever research has indicated the most valuable content in a reliable way, this content should be specified. Such a statement will do much to develop in teachers a vision of how real values may be determined. The description of content should not consist of mere headings but should state definitely just what is to be done.

2. The relation of the course of study to the textbook in use

There should be a clear statement of the relation of the course of study to the textbook which the teacher is using. The executive committee believes that your committee should have in mind the difficulties which confront the ordinary classroom teacher who attempts to follow a course of study which is organized on a basis different from that found in the adopted textbook. It is therefore recommended that this section of the report should show the teacher how to realize through her textbook the specific outcomes set up in your section of the course of study. You will find included in this letter a list of the textbooks most frequently used in the state of Iowa.

3. Important methods and exercises

The most important methods and exercises to be used in each grade. In recommending these methods, the committee should have in mind the diversity of textbooks which are used in the state. Special emphasis should be given to the following points.

a. Problems of teaching. What are the problems of teaching which most often give difficulty to the inexperienced teacher? Suggestions for meeting these problems should be as concrete as possible.

b. Concrete activities. Suggested concrete activities, projects, and the like.

- c. Diagnostic and remedial work. Show how diagnostic and remedial work can be used to adjust instruction to the individual.
4. Standards of achievement
The outcomes to be attained for promotion. Some of these outcomes should probably be stated in terms of subject matter covered rather than in terms of years. For example, the committee on geography may state what the child should know who has completed the study of South America rather than what he should know at the end of the fifth year in the study of geography. The statement in terms of subject matter covered seems to be necessary where the material covered in the various textbooks in a year is not the same.
5. The use of tests
This statement should include advice on the use of informal tests and possibly also directions for the use of standard tests. The general introduction to the course of study will include a special committee report on testing. Your committee may refer to this, but it will need to make specific recommendations as a part of its report. It is especially important that the recommendations on testing should be in harmony with the recommendations on "essential subject matter" as well as with the recommendations on "standards of achievement."
6. Relation to other subjects
Show the relation of the work taught in each grade to the other subjects taught in the same grade.
7. Special helps for rural teachers
There should be a section giving special help to rural teachers in teaching this subject.
8. Special problems in the primary grades
Your committee should give specific help in the teaching of your subject in the primary grades. It will be especially helpful also if you can indicate lessons in your subject which are suitable for the "General Lessons" usually given in rural schools.
9. Pupils' references
List of the best pupils' references and equipment needed in teaching your subject. This should be given by years.
- E. Teachers' professional library
The teachers' professional library should contain a minimum list that each teacher should be made to understand is a minimum for any teacher. It should contain also a second and more complete list for the stimulation of the continued professional growth of the teacher. Each reference should be given in the following bibliographical form.

Absolute accuracy in this matter is imperative. For books: KILPATRICK, William H., *Education for a Changing Civilization* (The Macmillan Co., 1926). For magazines: PARMENTER, Ethel M., "Student Government, a Project Method," *School Review*, Vol. 33, February, 1925, pp. 115-125. Each reference should be followed by a brief synopsis to show the teacher what she may expect to find in it. It is probable that both the complete list and the minimum list of references should appear under the main questions which confront teachers, such as: How can I be sure that I am teaching the right content in this subject? What are the most efficient methods of teaching this subject? How can I discover how efficiently I have taught the children under my direction? How can I help those pupils who are having special difficulties?

It was constantly emphasized that the organization and the language of the Iowa course of study should be adapted to the untrained teacher, technical terminology and philosophical discussions to be avoided in the interests of concreteness. In the preparation of the manuscripts, the committees were not given time to make new findings in the content and technique of instruction but were advised to apply what had been discovered through modern educational practice and research.

Teacher contribution to course of study revision under the direction of supervisors. During the school year 1925-26 supervisors and teachers in Baltimore County, Maryland, were at work revising their course of study in arithmetic. In the summer the supervisors listed present-day activities in which children and adults engage in the home, in the school, and in the community; studied and discussed the psychology of arithmetic; reviewed methods of teaching various phases of the subject; studied the findings of recent surveys in arithmetic; reviewed many arithmetic courses of study used in other school systems; carefully organized the work in arithmetic previously done by the teachers of the county; and evolved an outline to serve as a tentative working basis for the revision of the course of study in arithmetic.

At September meetings preliminary to the opening of school the teachers were grouped according to their various interests, and

several periods were devoted by supervisors and teachers to consideration of the newly revised outline in arithmetic. A number of questions were raised by the teachers, the most pertinent of which were placed before Dr. John R. Clark in November when he conducted periods of discussion with groups of teachers.

In the following May of the same school year the teachers of all types of schools were again invited to small group meetings to consider further questions in connection with the project of revision. The following announcement was sent to the seventh-grade group:

There will be a discussion of the tentative course of study in arithmetic for your grade. This discussion will be led by Miss Nellie Ledley, the grade chairman of your group. A consideration of the following points will help you to prepare for participation in the discussion.

1. The practicability of the tentative course of study in arithmetic as outlined for your grade:
 - a. What eliminations would you suggest?
 - b. What additions would you advise?
 - c. What suggestions have you for the rewording of any item listed under the topics for your grade?
2. Suggested goals or attainments for your grade. How would you suggest that grade requirements be indicated in the course of study?
3. Drill exercises that should be included for your grade.
 - a. Which phases of the work need much drill?
 - b. By what criteria should the worthwhileness of a drill exercise be judged?

Note: The drill exercise that you prepare at the request of your grade committee will serve as a practical basis for this discussion. (These exercises will be collected at the meeting.)

4. Lesson procedures for your grade.
 - a. What advantages are there in including lesson procedures in the course of study?
 - b. What disadvantages do you see?
 - c. If there is a topic in your grade outline upon which you would like a lesson procedure included in the course, what type of procedure would you advise?
5. References that should be included. There will be no time at the meeting to discuss this topic, but any teacher who has used a reference

that was helpful in any phase of the work is asked to hand in a slip, giving the title, author, publisher, and pages of any such materials.

Note: Enclosed is a list of questions which the committee has compiled for discussion at the meeting. Please be prepared to discuss the topics checked on the enclosed list. You are to feel free, however, to participate in any part of the meeting, to contribute any suggestions or to ask any questions.

The list of questions follows:

1. *Time Allotment.* What time should be devoted daily to arithmetic in seventh grade? How should this time be apportioned between recitation and seatwork? Would outlining the work for half-years be helpful in this grade?

2. *Minimum Requirements.* Should the course of study indicate a minimum as well as a maximum course? Are there any dangers in listing "minimum essentials"?

3. *Fundamental Operations.* What is the value of the tests on graded number facts in seventh grade? What types of drill should the course of study include that will increase skill in the fundamentals? Shall we continue the Courtis Research Tests if a satisfactory adjustment is made regarding reasonable grade standards? Are the Courtis Practice Tests of sufficient value to justify their being continued in seventh grade? Is it worth while to teach other methods of checking addition besides adding in reverse order? Is addition the best method of checking subtraction? What are the comparative values of the following methods of checking multiplication: (a) by division, (b) by reversing the multiplier and multiplier, (c) by multiplying again?

4. *Measurements.* Should altitude, base, perimeter, and area of triangles be taught in seventh grade or in sixth grade? Would it be satisfactory for sixth-grade pupils to be taught recognition, only, of circumference, diameter, and radius of circles, leaving manipulation, such as finding circumference when diameter is given, for seventh grade? How much work shall we give in the four processes with denominate numbers? What kinds of scale drawings are not practical for seventh grade? What kinds of graphs should be taught in seventh grade? Shall we teach horizontal lines and vertical lines; parallel lines; broken and curved lines; that a right angle equals 90° , that a right angle equals one-fourth of a circle; supplementary angles; complementary angles? What is the value of ratio and proportion and what shall we do with it in this grade? What work shall we give with squares and cubes of numbers? With square root? Which of the following are essential in seventh grade: area of trapezoid;

parallelogram, rhomboid, rhombus (or rhomb) trapezium? Shall we teach the metric system as information or manipulation (neither or both)?

5. *Common and Decimal Fractions.* What types of drill are needed in seventh grade to insure a retention of skills? Should some of these drill exercises be indicated in our seventh-grade course?

6. *Per Cents.* The sixth-grade committee advocates teaching in Grade 6, per cents over 100 as information but not for manipulation and leaving $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, etc., for Grade 7. Is this advisable? Would it be satisfactory in Grade 6 not to teach the third case in percentage unless pupils make inquiry about it? Should the following topics be given mainly for information, with only a small amount of manipulation; compound interest, bank discount, installments, stocks and bonds? In the seventh grade shall we not emphasize comparative values of various types of investments?

7. *Problems.* What is the value of having pupils frame original problems? How can it be made profitable? What work should be given with X solution? What types of problems should be used? Is it necessary in seventh grade to have detailed written analysis (occasionally, as tentative course indicates)? Shall we add bills and personal accounts to the outline? What work can be given in budget making in this grade?

8. *Drill Exercise.* Please bring to the meeting an exercise that you would recommend for a seventh-grade drill on ———.

Some of the problems which confronted the Baltimore County supervisors in connection with revising the course of study in arithmetic were as follows:

- I. How flexible should a course of study be? Many teachers desired that the course in arithmetic for each grade be outlined by months.
 1. Will this monthly outline hamper the teacher of superior ability?
 2. Is there danger of the dependent teacher following blindly the suggestions for each month without due consideration to the needs of her class?
- II. How much method should be included in a course of study? Shall there be
 1. specific suggestions for teaching each phase of work?
 2. lesson plans?
 3. practice exercises?
 4. carefully graded subject matter with few suggestions of method?
- III. How can the actual writing of the course of study be done most economically?

1. How can we prevent serious interruption of classroom visitation?
2. How can we organize the work of curriculum making so that the finished product, the material for seven grades, is one complete unit?

Ways in which teachers contribute to course of study. Reference has already been made to the cardinal objectives in elementary education as conceived by a large number of teachers and supervisors in the State of New York.⁶ The two following reports from classroom teachers in that state illustrate not only some of the activities by which these objectives are being attained, but also ways in which teachers are making contributions to the course of study.

The first report is from a teacher of first-grade children. It shows how the learning of number combinations is accomplished through playing store. The second report is from a teacher of sixth-grade children. It shows how the study of Greece was enriched for children through self-chosen activities. In writing these reports the teachers were asked to show how the classroom activities embodied the attainment of the cardinal objectives. Teachers who prepare reports such as these will become critical analysts of their teaching and will develop professionally.

A GROCERY STORE—GRADE 1

I. *How the unit of work was initiated*

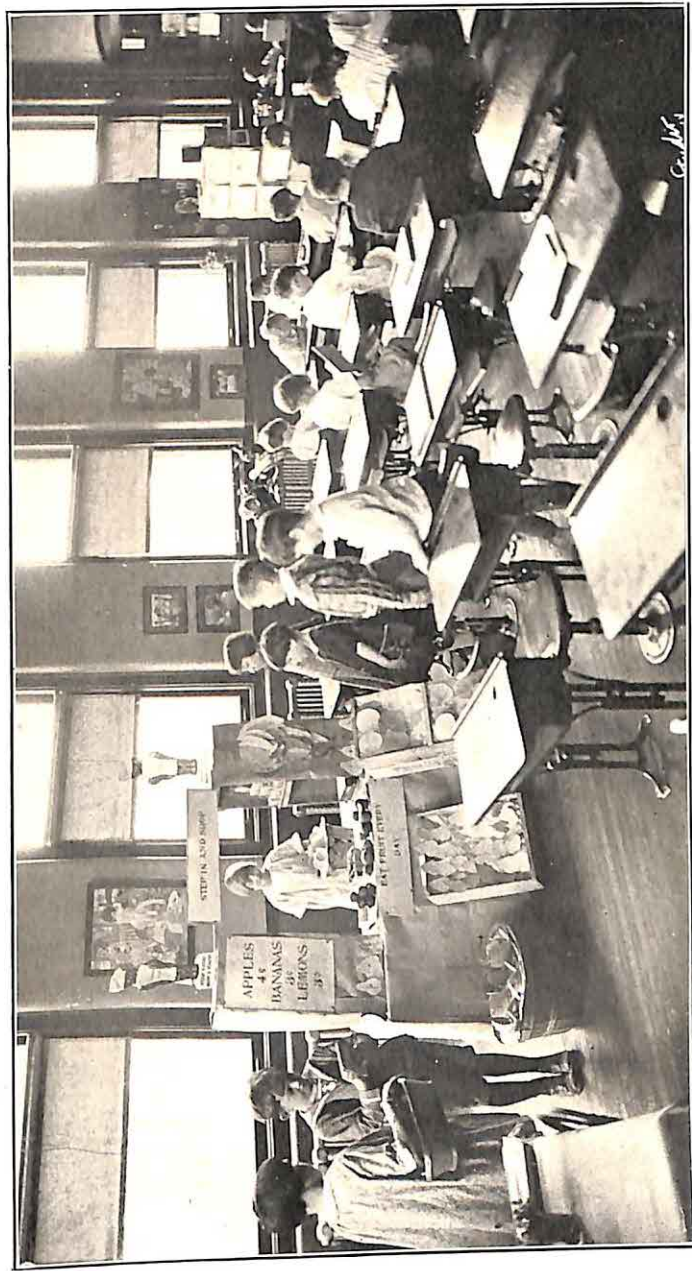
One day in number class we had a discussion of the need of a knowledge of money. This led, of course, to the use of money. There is a grocery store across the street to which almost all the children go on errands for their mothers. Two blocks down is the familiar five- and ten-cent store.

It was a natural step for one boy with plenty of initiative to say, "Let's have a store, Miss Blank!"

II. *How it was developed*

I asked where we could have the store. A discussion followed as to the best place in the room with reference to other furniture and with reference to our convenience. Then came the question of how to build

⁶ *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education*, second report prepared by the Committee on Elementary Education of the New York Council of Superintendents, 1929, pp. 44-47. See pp. 347-348 in this text.



Fulton School, Schenectady, New York.

THE GROCERY STORE IS POPULAR WITH THE SECOND GRADE.

Learning is considerably more efficient when it functions immediately in the life of the learner. In this classroom those who can *remember* the combinations in arithmetic may be storekeepers.

it. One boy said that he could get some orange crates at the store. After school he and four other boys returned tugging orange crates. They made two trips before they felt they had enough.

The next morning before school the children built the store. Several arrangements were tried out before one was accepted.

In a conversation lesson at language time we chose the kind of store and its name. The grocery store seemed to be most popular, as all were familiar with it. Then came a discussion of the things to be sold in such a store. They decided to visit the store across the street, look around, and report on what they saw. The children came in before school proudly bringing contributions of empty boxes and cans of food, such as shredded wheat and baking powder.

The third grade lent us sample packages from its very complete National Biscuit Company store.

We next had a cutting lesson of letters for the name "1B Store." These were of white drawing paper. The best were selected and mounted on a black strip.

In a number class we discussed prices and made price tags. In seat-work periods the children made signs, such as "Fresh Eggs," "Bread," "Breakfast Food," "Soup." They made paper money by tracing around real pieces of money.

Vegetables and fruit were made from the different colored plastecine.

Each day our milk for lunch was placed in the store and children took their own money and bought their milk. Sometimes a boy was sent to the store across the street for graham crackers after the class decided how much money he would need.

The store project took a number of periods covering more than a week. Every child had a chance to buy. As many as possible took turns in being storekeeper and clerk. Money that required change was given to those who were familiar with number. Only two could buy at a time. Attention was paid to the use of courteous language in buying and selling. Some days each child decided how much he wanted to spend and came and drew the amount from the "Bank," which was a box on the desk.

The children did not seem to tire of the store for many days and before school they swarmed around it like bees, playing in their own way.

Later other stores were talked of and one day the children cut from magazines pictures of articles to sell. They made plastecine vegetables and baked goods. These they arranged along the chalk tray in different sections. One section was marked "Ten Cent Store," another "Bakery," another "Merchandise." This involved decision as to the correct placing. They used toy money and shopped from store to store.

Health talks brought out some things *best* to buy for health's sake. Care in coughing or sneezing over food or using soiled hands when handling food was discussed. Behavior in stores, such as courtesy to clerks, touching things, waiting one's turn, being impatient and pushing, was emphasized.

Songs such as "The Cow Says Moo" and "Hot Cross Buns" and stories such as Carolyn Bailey's "How the Crickets Brought Good Fortune," and Phila Butler Bowman's "Thanksgiving Loaves" were learned.

III. *Outcomes*

- The joy of all working in coöperation for a desirable end
- Better knowledge of money
- Better knowledge of stores and storekeeping
- Increased power of decision
- Keener observation
- Greater self-control and kindness
- Greater hand skill in effort to contribute
- Better knowledge of healthful foods

IV. *Cardinal objectives emphasized*

- A. Social relationships
 - 1. Respect for rights and contributions of others
 - 2. Coöperation in the assembling of store
 - 3. Helpfulness in shopping for the home
- B. Self-expression
 - Modeling, cutting, conversing, buying, and acting as storekeeper
- C. Critical thinking
 - Deciding on how to build the store; its name; what to sell; the price; foods best for health; money needed for what they wished to buy; arrangement of goods in the store; conduct in the store
- D. Knowledge and skills
 - Better oral expression; an understanding of money denominations and the ability to make change for a half dollar or less
- E. Health
 - A start on a knowledge of foods for health; danger from carelessness in handling food

INTRODUCING GREECE THROUGH OLYMPIC GAMES⁷—GRADE 6

I. *How the work was initiated*

During the summer the teacher had gathered into a notebook the report of each day's events at the celebration of the ninth Olympic games

⁷ *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education*, Committee on Elementary Education of the New York Council of Superintendents, 1929, pp. 154-160.

held in Amsterdam, Holland. This was given to the children about a week before the teacher intended to begin the study of Greece, with the request that, as each one looked at the notebook, he write out any questions that occurred to him. There was a wide range of difference in the number and types of questions handed in, some children writing irrelevant queries, some saying that they understood all and had no questions, and some asking thoughtful questions, of which two examples follow:

What is the difference between Olympiad and Olympic?
Who started these games? Why? When? Where?

II. *How the work was developed*

With a group of questions culled from the papers, the teacher planned a supervised study and socialized recitation, her purpose being to satisfy the questioners and to stimulate further curiosity about these ancients who could stop wars to hold a festival of games. A subsequent lesson was devoted to listing questions that the class wanted its study of Greece to answer. These questions, later printed on large sheets of tag board and conspicuously posted, served as guide and check through the ten weeks' study. Sample questions follow:

How was news carried?
What amusements had the Greeks?
What wars did they fight?
What books and music had they?
How did they dress?
What did they eat?
How did they educate their children?
What was their religion?
What occupations had they?

Through these questions the teacher discovered individual interests and later used her knowledge in her individual and group assignments.

As a member of the group, the teacher proposed questions. Her contributions were in the nature of broader, summarizing questions such as the following:

What has Greece given the world?
Why did Greece decline in importance?

The work then proceeded along the broad outlines laid down by the children with many correlations that the teacher's wider experience suggested. The material was found mostly through supervised study and it

was discussed in socialized recitations. In the latter the children had to learn control in allowing one member to finish before they rose to add or criticize and in waiting to be recognized before speaking. Courtesy and kindness in criticism were aims set up and desired by the children themselves. Open-mindedness and critical thinking were encouraged because of the necessity of choosing from a wealth of material and the disagreement of authorities on certain points. Again, such questions as: "Do you consider an oligarchy a good form of government? Why?" were as much a part of the assignment as were fact questions. The best stimulus to critical thinking came from the reaction of certain children who wondered about such things as the position of the Athenian girl in contrast to their own, about the cheapness of human life, about the stopping of wars to have games, whereas we stopped the games; and about Socrates' trial. Very objective criticism of one another's work was made throughout the study.

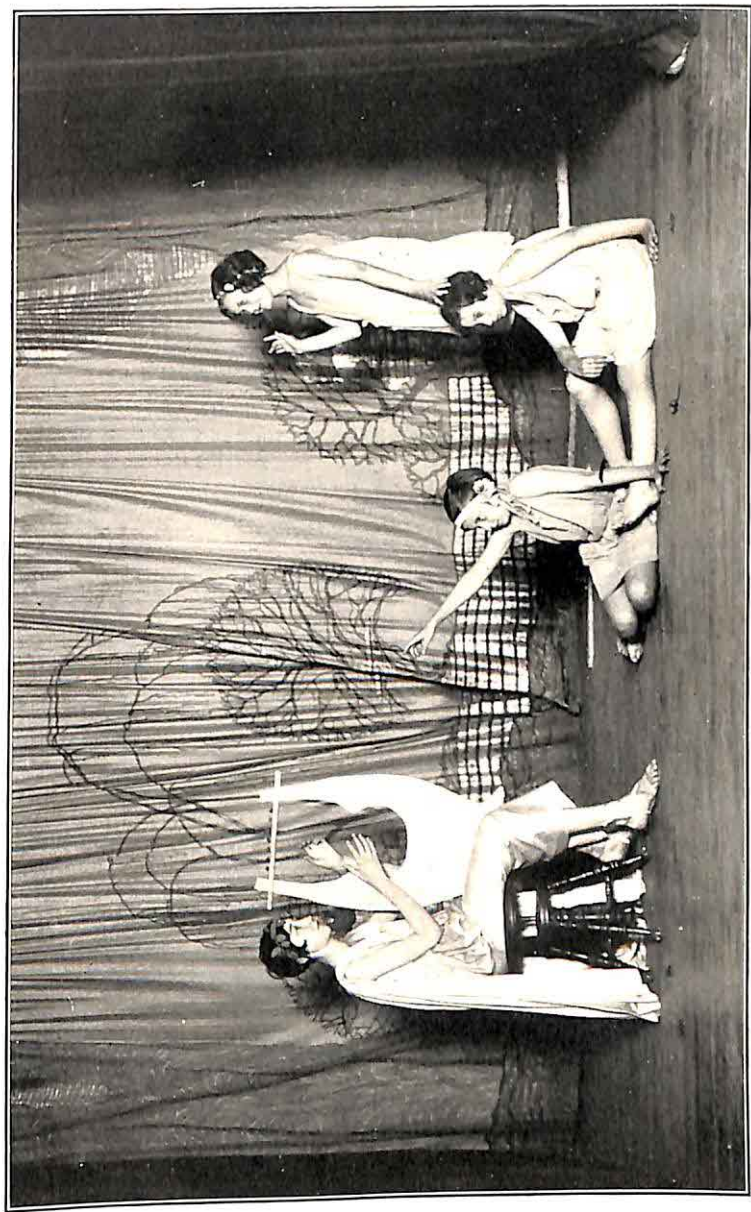
Some of the correlations worked out were as follows:

- A. The geography lessons centered about Greece and the lands influenced by her history.
- B. The English periods were devoted to
 - 1. Letters for travel booklets
 - 2. Original myths and fables that were composed orally and then written after Greek myths and fables had been studied
 - 3. The study of a few pictures showing Greek life
 - 4. The study of some Greek statues, notably "The Victory of Samathrace," "The Discus Thrower," and "The Venus de Milo"

Correct usage in oral and written language was taught as required by these projects.

When the work was fairly launched, the teacher used the children's very keen interest in slides as a basis for suggesting that the class make its own set of slides on Greece. Each child chose his topic, read about it in as many books as were available, prepared at least one slide, and wrote a brief article about his subject. A handbook illustrated and dedicated "To those who helped us in this school" accompanied the slides. Lecturing to a group of interested mothers and showing the work to another class rounded out the sharing experience.

A final glimpse of Greece was taken when each child selected a favorite Greek, read as much as possible about him and illustrated a short paper. In this work, as well as in the previous study, maps, indexes, contents, and dictionary or vocabulary lists were made in a real situation.



Mount Vernon School, New York.

RELIVING GREEK LIFE.

The beauty of Greek life finds expression in the sixth-grade assembly program.

4. What practical suggestions have you to offer concerning the adjustments of basal text, reference books, and course of study?

In an effort to help teachers appreciate some of the advantages of a different organization of material in the new course of study, a county supervisor arranged for a group of teachers to observe in the classrooms of two teachers who were trying out units of subject matter suggested in the new course. Each teacher was teaching a phase of the history unit "Colonial Life." One teacher used it with a fourth-grade class; the other teacher used it with a seventh-grade class. A part of the subsequent critique was designed to show that the seventh-grade children were not being sufficiently challenged. The content, the references, the study period, and the discussion were on a level not much more mature than that of the fourth-grade children. The critique was organized around these questions:

I. Handling subject matter in large units

1. What advantages do you see in handling content subjects such as history and geography in large units rather than by the old question-and-answer method?
2. What vital change does it demand in method, background, class-management, attitude toward subject matter?
3. What evidence have you that the teacher has a good background of subject matter?

II. Trying out units of subject matter

1. Are the problems and activities challenging to the children?
2. Is the material sufficiently rich in content?
3. Are there suitable reference books and enough of them?
4. Evaluate the supervised study.
5. Evaluate the discussion.

One of the six cardinal objectives in elementary education agreed upon by the supervisors and teachers in the State of New York is thus expressed: "To gain command of the common integrating knowledge and skills." Without doubt this objective is the only one stressed for attainment in many rural schools. Certainly one of the most important functions of the elementary school is to teach the fundamentals—the tools of learning—and

to teach them well. There was a day when to teach the "Three R's" sufficed, but the demands of complex social conditions in a changing world make it imperative that the school give the kind of training necessary to meet these demands effectively. There is the necessity of developing the habit of critical thinking and of training for the wise use of leisure time. There need to be developed certain attitudes and appreciations which require that due attention be given to art, literature, music, the social studies, contact with nature, games, and sports throughout the grades of the elementary school. This is but another way of saying that the elementary-school curriculum, particularly in rural communities, needs enrichment. Surrounding the rural school is a natural laboratory; but the rural child's rich, natural environment is not capitalized, for nature-study outlines seldom get any further than the superintendent's office. Rural children more than city children need the opportunities for self-expression provided by the fine and industrial arts, language, literature, music, and folk dancing. They need to have their social and civic experiences supplemented. History and geography can afford abundant material for developing habits of critical thinking and appreciation of civic responsibility.

Ways have already been indicated in which supervisors are using course of study building as a means for developing a group of professional workers. In the effort to enrich the rural-school curriculum so that children will be stimulated to do some critical thinking and will be forming tastes and appreciations that will contribute to the wise use of leisure time, supervisors are encouraging teachers to report on classroom activities, and to work out large units of subject matter and single lesson plans that will supplement what has been expressed as the "lacks" and "needs" of the rural child's environment. The reports describing the grocery store activity for Grade 1, and the study of ancient Greece for Grade 6, are excellent examples of teacher contributions toward an enriched curriculum with emphasis on critical thinking, social relationships, interest, and creative effort.



Woodburn School, Schenectady, New York.

INTRODUCING GREECE THROUGH OLYMPIC GAMES.

These sixth-grade children have gleaned much information about Greece in their study of Olympic Games and are impressing it on their memories through self-chosen activities.

III. *Outcomes*

A. Self-expression

1. Selecting topics for study and discussion
2. Choosing the medium for expressing their ideas
3. Dressing dolls in chitons and himations
4. Making a Greek house
5. Bringing in stories, articles and books that were especially interesting to individual children

B. Critical thinking

1. Choosing from a wealth of material
2. Working out their own conclusions on the basis of data selected from different sources
3. Evaluating one another's work as submitted in reports
4. Presenting and finding the answers to questions that were stimulated by reading and discussion
5. Comparing conditions that prevailed in early Greek times with those that prevail in our own country at the present

C. Knowledge and skills

1. Greek history
2. Geography of Greece
3. Food, clothing, and homes of the early Greeks
4. The contribution of Greek art and culture to our own civilization

Note: Reviews and drills of essential subject matter were frequent. Sometimes a list of words representing new ideas was placed on the board. The teacher asked: "Are there any words in the list that you would like explained?" Children volunteered to explain for one another. Sometimes a written summary using the words in sentences followed, or a list of words was put on the board and the children were asked to choose one word and give a valuable sentence or short talk about it. Objective tests were used for reviewing and summarizing.

D. Health

1. The Greek ideal of a beautiful body as a basis for hygiene with special emphasis upon posture
2. The development of a love for the beautiful, a respect for Greek culture, and an appreciation of what we have inherited from the Greeks
3. The exercise of self-control, courtesy, kindness, generosity, hospitality

The foregoing quotations illustrate effective ways of securing contributions from teachers to courses of study. These ways may

be summarized as follows, under discussions, reports, and experimentation:

- I. Discussions during grade and committee meetings of such topics as:
 1. Social needs of classroom and community
 2. Ways in which the course of study now in use fails to meet the needs of pupils and teachers
 3. Reasonableness of grade attainments and time allotment
 4. Recommendations of material to be included or eliminated
 5. Criticisms of suggested or tentative course
 6. Evaluation of subject matter
- II. Reports (oral and written) by individuals, including such material as follows:
 1. Units of work or projects already tried out in classroom
 2. Lesson plans
 3. Drill and practice exercises
 4. Material secured from summer courses at Universities
 5. Contributions of experimental research
 6. Lists of books
- III. Experimentation in the classroom in the matter of
 1. Working out units or projects
 2. Trying out tentative course
 3. Testing to determine value of material or method

By coöperating with supervisors in developing courses of study teachers will themselves grow as the course of study grows. They will have a clearer conception of the child, his nature, and his needs; they will tend to become more interested in the results of scientific research and investigation; they will tend to evaluate their practices in the light of educational objectives and educational psychology; they will develop a fuller realization of the need and value of a general culture.

Helping teachers to use the course of study. It is important to know where to locate what one wants. For this reason teachers should first familiarize themselves with the table of contents and organization of the course of study for quick use. Inexperienced teachers need considerable assistance in following a course of study that is organized on a different basis from that found in the textbook in use. The difficulty lies in the fact that the con-

scientious teacher must select the topic from the course of study, must search the text for page references, must reorganize the material in the text to make it serve the needs of her several groups of children. Beginning teachers and new teachers unfamiliar with both texts and courses of study need supervisory aid in learning how to formulate a big question or problem from the information given in the history or geography text or to use one suggested in the course of study; also how to provide study assignments to guide in the study of the text and outside references.

Often the same course of study is used in all of the schools of a county whether in towns, villages, or open country. Teachers of one-teacher schools with short lesson periods find it difficult without help to select from a detailed course of study what to eliminate, what needs to be supplied, or how to realize through their textbooks the outcomes as outlined in the course of study. A minimum list of essentials, without too great detail where text and references are indicated, is probably what is needed, even though it means some loss in richness and suggestiveness. The supervisor may work advantageously with the teachers of his smaller rural schools in preparing a course with certain eliminations and additions in accordance with the needs of the teachers and children who will use it.

The practical application of the course to a classroom situation enables the teacher to evaluate the subject matter outlined in the course, and in turn to offer valuable suggestions for revising, eliminating, or supplementing the material that it presents. With a view toward adapting a county course of study to the needs of the one-teacher schools, a supervisor made the following assignment for a teachers' meeting:

1. Review carefully the history outlined in the course for Grades 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 to see in perspective the work of the school as a whole.
2. In making this general survey of the history, note the *main* divisions or topics taught in each grade.
3. Make a monthly *time allotment* for teaching these units of work in the grades for which you are directly responsible. Refer to your achievement book in making this allotment for the first half year.

Helping teachers to interpret the course of study. Besides encouraging his teachers to work out reports of classroom activities, large units of work, and single lesson plans by way of contributing to the course of study, there is work still more important required of the supervisor. He must often be an interpreter of the course of study to his teachers. This he does through sending out mimeographed bulletins to guide his teachers in the use of the course of study, through making assignments for teachers' meetings that contain specific references to the course of study, through discussing parts of the course of study at teachers' meetings, and through visiting the classrooms of those teachers who are trying to use either the old or the revised course.

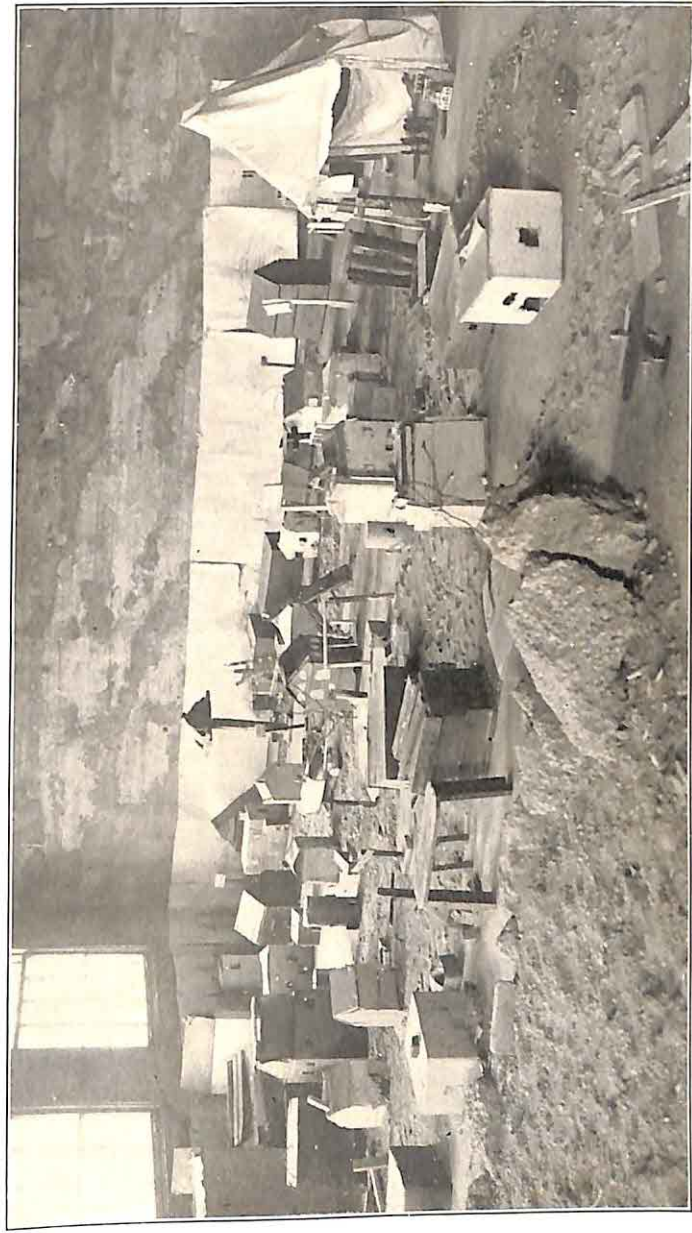
One of the supervisor's most important duties in the classroom is to help the teacher transform the more or less meager skeleton that is the course of study into rich, live, and interesting classroom activities. The two illustrations that follow show how a supervisor of town and village schools aids her teachers in working out with the children activities that were briefly outlined in the county course of study. As is frequently the case with so-called "activities," these teachers needed help in making the work challenge the best efforts of their pupils, and in making it richer, more meaningful, and more accurate.

A FIRST GRADE "WORK PERIOD" WITH A BEGINNING TEACHER⁸

Situation. A beginning teacher was carrying on a work-period with a group of forty-four first-grade pupils. It was the second month of school. The teacher had been studying a unit, "Farm Life," with her pupils. They had discussed rather fully the work of the various people on the farm, the kinds and use of farm buildings, the work of the animals. The children were building house, barn, and silo with a vague idea of finally arranging the farm on the floor.

During this work-period the number of activities in progress was quite meager. A committee of four children painted the barn and silo; another committee of five was completing the house; six children painted farm

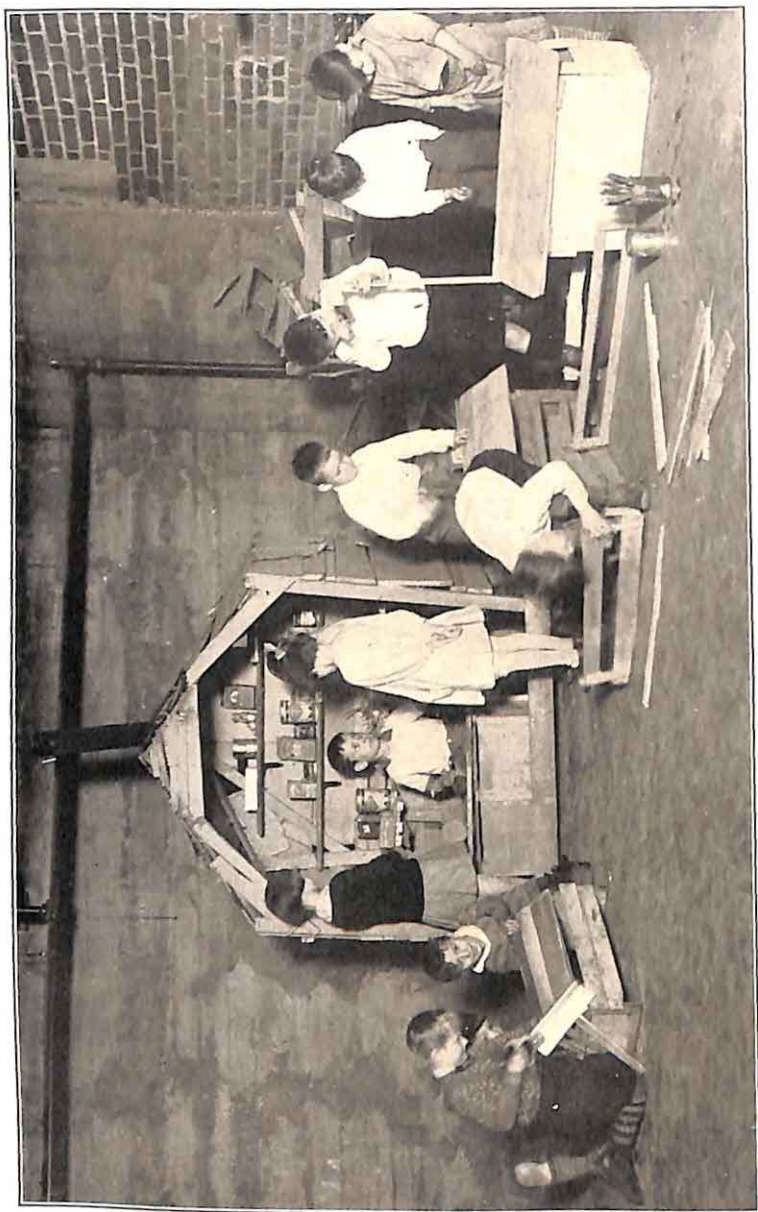
⁸ Reported by Myrtle Eckhardt, Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Carroll County, Maryland.



Montgomery County, Maryland.

A COMMUNITY BUILT BY A FIRST-GRADE CLASS.

The course of study is more than a printed pamphlet at Kensington School, where Antoinette Darby's first-grade class built a community. Through this activity the children learned how the community aids the family in securing food, shelter, and clothing, in sending and receiving messages, in providing protection and recreation, and in traveling.



Montgomery County, Maryland.

A FEW OF THE KENSINGTON FIRST-GRADE CHILDREN.

The boys have built a store and are working on other buildings. Each child is interested and successful.

pictures at the easels; half of the remainder of the pupils made animals out of plastecine for the farm; the others drew scenes of farm activities with crayons, a type of work they had been doing during some of their reading seatwork periods. Previous to the scheduled work period, the teacher had had several problems in discipline to manage. It was noticeable during the work period, however, that the children were genuinely interested in what they were doing and were behaving better than at any other time during the day. The teacher did not detect this but flitted from group to group with apparently no further purpose in mind than to attempt to keep everyone working as quietly as possible.

Two outstanding things were evident: (1) the teacher did not know how to plan an activity in its entirety—beginning with the children's ideas of how to build a farm and helping them to enlarge their ideas and plans until the finished whole should make them feel that they really lived "farm life" in the classroom: (2) she had little conception of the many values that exist in a carefully planned work period, least of all of her part as a stimulating coworker.

Remedial Work. So that the teacher would discover for herself many of the possibilities involved in a work period, the supervisor handled with the children the critique that follows the half hour or more of work. Effort was made to show these ideas:

1. With encouragement children will enlarge upon their plans; for example, a child who has planned to make a barn begins to see the need of horses, of stalls for them, of a haymow.
2. A critical, constructive attitude of a high type can be developed in children.
3. Children may be encouraged to express their ideas freely, to interpret their paintings, to plan their work for the next day, to talk from an enriched background.
4. Children realize when their ideas are being respected.
5. When children are seriously interested in a problem of their own, discipline problems vanish.
6. It is the teacher's job during a work period to stimulate, suggest, and guide—to develop the individual.

In the conference following the morning's work, the teacher was able to list most of the values mentioned. These served as an introduction to the discussion of point number one—how to plan a worth while program of work consisting of learning activities worthy of a first grade child. The following conclusions were reached.

1. The teacher must be aware of the many activities that would help to make "Farm Life" real to children. At least three-fourths of the pupils will be interested in helping to construct one of the many buildings needed on a farm. Other activities of interest would be pasting pictures in a large class farm booklet or making a cut-out frieze or a painted frieze of activities on the farm. An illustrated vocabulary chart brings new words learned to the attention of the children. Language stories of the information or experience type growing out of the work are printed on large charts and form a story book for the class. Other activities will develop as the work progresses.
2. The teacher plans the work with the children, letting them choose what they will do and form their committees if more than one child desires to work on the same thing.
3. The teacher keeps a chart of the work each child does, using such headings as these: name of child; work finished; material used; when finished; name of unit. This gives her a brief survey of the progress of the entire class.
4. With the activity thus carefully planned, the teacher finds her place in the work period.

With this background of values and general principles, the beginning teacher is able to plan her next social-studies unit with more success.

SETTING UP STANDARDS FOR A SAND-TABLE ACTIVITY IN THE FOURTH GRADE ⁹

Frequently the best type of conference may be held during an intermission when teacher, children, and supervisor are in the midst of the activity in the making.

A group of fourth-grade children were explaining to the supervisor a sand table depicting an Arabian setting. The teacher was present. The scene represented an Arab camp—a tent made of striped cloth, Arabs (of paper) sitting in front of the tent with the ever present coffee urn and cups in front of them, goats and camels standing nearby. Attempts had been made to show sand dunes in the background.

In the course of the conversation, guided carefully by the supervisor, teacher and pupils were brought to realize that such standards as these are possible in constructing a sand table:

1. A sand table is of value in proportion to the number of real facts it tells to the onlooker. A production of a high type would thus

⁹ Reported by Myrtle Eckhardt, Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Carroll County, Maryland.

involve much reference work, picture study, and use of many materials to give completeness to the scene that is depicted.

2. The representations that are made must be worthy of the grade level and ability of the children. For example, the tent should be made with the divisions in it that are found in a real Arabian tent; the Arabs, instead of being made of paper, should be dolls dressed in Arabian clothing with long gown and burnoose.
3. Everything must be accurate as to detail in so far as it can be made so with available materials; children will know when substitutions are being made.
4. Fourth-grade pupils need to handle as many materials as possible—wood, cloth, cement, stone, tin, and so on.

Thus children, teacher, and supervisor work out standards together to keep the activity on the highest possible level.

Supervisors as well as teachers grow as the course of study grows. There are many complex problems that course-of-study revision presents to the rural supervisor. To saturate oneself with any subject to the point of producing a course of study in that subject necessitates a narrowed interest and jeopardizes complete supervisory service. Again, field work sometimes has to be sacrificed at a critical period to provide time for the actual editing of materials and organizing of them into book form. In spite of these difficulties, however, there are so many values inherent in course-of-study making that it will undoubtedly remain one of the most potent of all supervisory instruments.

A county supervisor was much concerned one year because of the curtailment of some of her regular supervisory activities due to time spent in the office instead of in the field. Much time was demanded that year by tasks incident to the major activity of directing the making of a course of study in English and organizing the teachers' contributions. This supervisor particularly regretted that her visits to the classrooms were shorter and less frequent than formerly. In the succeeding year, however, she found that she had become much stronger as a field worker by reason of the intensive effort she had expended on the course of study project.

She listed a number of outcomes of which she was conscious, among which were the following:

1. A steadying consciousness of underlying principles in the teaching of language is emerging from the confusion of mottled devices, methods, and personalities which have heretofore proved so distracting.
2. Classroom teaching has been observed with especial regard for incidental and purposeful language training.
3. A broader basis for classroom observation has enabled the supervisor to see more in a lesson procedure and to give more thoughtful attention to details.
4. Questions coming from teachers regarding the comparative value of two methods, how certain difficulties shall be overcome, and what would be good books of reference have certainly been met with greater ease and confidence because of the parallel work going on.
5. A spirit of comradeship has grown up in committee meetings that is most wholesome and helpful to both teacher and supervisor.
6. Common specific objectives and interests have led many teachers to look forward with especial desire to the next supervisory visit.
7. Questions and materials are often prepared by teachers in advance and they are more apt to be in the right attitude for receiving the greatest amount of good from a brief conference.

Summary. Participation in the work of revising the curriculum makes many demands upon the supervisor. He must consider carefully what subject matter an individual needs if he is to live intelligently as a social being in a changing world. He must constantly study the relation of subject matter and method. He must know how to apply sound educational psychology.

But course-of-study making yields rich returns in intellectual and professional growth. The growth is incident to the *process* rather than to the product. As a continuous process it will have no small share in realizing the goal for supervision set up at the beginning of this chapter; namely, "the development of a group of professional workers who attack their problems scientifically, free from the control of tradition and actuated by the spirit of inquiry."

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CHAPTER XIII

THE REJUVENATION OF THE COUNTY INSTITUTE

I. THE PURPOSES AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE

The teachers' institute a common agency of rural supervision. Probably no other single agency of rural supervision has endured for so long a period as the teachers' institute. In many counties it is still practically the only supervisory agency in use for the improvement of teachers. County and district superintendents are burdened with a multitude of clerical and administrative duties which require the major portion of their time and energy. The employment of trained educators whose distinct function is that of supervision is the exception rather than the rule. The nature of his work prevents the county or district superintendent from doing a great deal of direct supervision. In many states he still relies upon the teachers' institute as the chief agency of teacher improvement. Great changes in teacher training have been brought about since the first teachers' institute was held. It is important to determine whether the teachers' institute gives evidence of corresponding changes and to decide if its continuance is educationally justifiable.

The historical development of the teachers' institute. According to Ruediger¹ and Smart² the first teachers' institute in America was held in October, 1839, when Henry Barnard assembled twenty-six young men at Hartford, Connecticut, and formed them into a class. They were taught for a period of six weeks by

¹ W. C. Ruediger, "Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service," *U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin*, No. 3, 1911, p. 32.

² James H. Smart, "Teachers' Institutes," *U. S. Bureau of Education Circular of Information*, No. 2, 1885, p. 35.

able lecturers and observed the teaching of the public schools at Hartford. At intervals up to 1848, similar assemblages of teachers were held although the term "institute" was not applied to these gatherings. J. S. Denman of Tompkins County, New York, used this term for the first time in 1843 in describing a two-weeks meeting of the teachers of his county. After the year 1843 the practice of holding teachers' institutes spread rapidly throughout the northern states, aided by the vigorous support of Horace Mann. From 1880 on, the statutes of the southern states made provision for institutes, separate meetings being held for colored teachers.

The purpose of our first teachers' institutes. The early documents relating to teachers' institutes call attention to the necessity for a sufficient number of thoroughly trained teachers in the establishment and maintenance of a satisfactory system of common schools, and the importance of institutes in fitting teachers for their work, especially in the absence of good normal schools. The early supply of well trained teachers was exceedingly meager due to the poor salaries paid, political influences in the selection and licensing of teachers, the temporary nature of the occupation, and the use of teaching as a stepping stone to other professions. This widespread and lasting condition of things explains the necessity for supporting and maintaining teachers' institutes after normal schools were established.

Henry Raab, state superintendent of schools in Illinois in 1883, in a statement to the county superintendents gives the following as the legitimate purposes of the county teachers' institute:³

1. To impart instruction
 - a. in subjects to be taught
 - b. in methods of teaching
2. To unify the work done in the schools of the county
3. To promote a professional *esprit de corps* by bringing the less experienced in contact with maturer minds
4. To instruct the community upon the aims and scope of the school

³ Smart, *op. cit.*, p. 202.

It is clear that the chief purpose of the early teachers' institutes was to give both academic and professional training to those teachers who had been unable to secure this training in regular normal schools.

The value of teachers' institutes questioned many years ago. After the establishment of summer schools for teachers there arose a great deal of discussion concerning the value of the teachers' institute. Newton Bateman, superintendent of public instruction in Illinois for the years 1859-63, presents the case for the institute in the following statement of its benefits:

1. Professional knowledge and insight
2. Help in specific difficulties
3. The proper discipline of schools
4. Quickening the professional spirit
5. Social acquaintance and friendship
6. Community benefits
 - a. Public aroused to importance of education
 - b. True educational standards set before the people
 - c. Mutual confidence and good understanding established between the people, and school officers and teachers

The case against the teachers' institute has been presented by a number of educators. A typical criticism is taken from an article by Homer H. Seerley on the "Practical Value of the Institute System" in the *Educational Review* for November, 1908. He says:⁴

The institute system has been a makeshift and was not originally intended to be a permanent part of the educational system of any State. Its inauguration and maintenance by most of the States has been due to the lack of means to educate teachers more systematically and to lack of disposition, on the part of those who begin teaching, to go to the trouble to prepare properly for the vocation.

There is no doubt but the institute system, when managed by specially competent persons, has been a benefit to the work of elementary education in the formative periods of most of the states; but it has also had the counter effect of making teachers satisfied with minimum educational

⁴ W. C. Ruediger, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

qualifications, and with empirical training, so that the majority of them have long since concluded that when they have enough scholarship to secure a brief license to teach, and have added to this annual attendance at the teachers' institute, they have shown sufficient professional evidence of their individual capability as educators. Later movements (the various types of summer schools) have not been accepted uniformly as fair substitutes for the institute, and, hence, in many instances those in authority over the teachers have compelled institute attendance in preference to this more extended study, thus discouraging the real substantial efforts they are making for improvement. This has been due to fear of loss of financial support through loss of numbers enrolled and, hence, to loss of control and to other reasons that are official and personal. The constant change of county superintendents, the introduction of new and inexperienced instructors, the rising and falling of state superintendents through frequent elections, have each had a decided effect upon keeping the institute system glorified and magnified from year to year.

The actual results claimed for institutes are usually greatly overestimated by those who conduct them. They allow their enthusiasm to direct their judgment, they accept appearances as results because they assume that the work they have done is specially effective and positively permanent. They have no definite way to determine the facts, or to summarize the opinion of the teachers, and the estimates they make are often more or less visionary and unreliable. Those who follow the business of conducting these annual assemblies, whose vocation depends on the system and who are firm believers in the system, more because they do not know anything better to do for the teachers than because of its real excellence or its efficiency, could hardly be supposed to be unprejudiced witnesses.

A recent editorial comment sums up the case against the county institute:⁵

There was a time when teachers' institutes were necessary and productive. That was before the literature of educational methods had been developed and before the normal schools had expanded to the point where they can supply the schools with professionally trained teachers.

The old-fashioned institute and to a great extent the present-day institute must be condemned as guilty of triviality of the most wasteful type. Not infrequently petty graft and transparent business propaganda are apparent. School-supply houses furnish speakers, and county superin-

⁵ "Teachers' Institutes," editorial comment in *The Elementary School Journal*, September, 1930, pp. 6, 7.

tendents exchange speaking opportunities with one another. Sentimental exhortation and silly anecdotes occupy the time of teachers, who would be better engaged if they stayed at home and did almost anything.

The effort to justify the institute as a social event is decreasingly successful with the multiplication of section meetings of the state teachers' associations, where really able speakers appear, where exhibits can be organized on a respectable scale, and where the group consciousness of teachers can be effectively fostered.

The county institute should be quietly buried with other institutions which have ceased to function. The money that is wasted from year to year should be invested in radio receiving sets. If a set were installed in each school, it would be possible to give the teachers and pupils more valuable material in a year than can be presented in ordinary institute programs in a century. If the radio idea does not appeal to county superintendents, let them consider the purchase of professional libraries for the schools. Of course, there will be some teachers who will not read the books, but there are enough dormant teachers at every county institute to balance the loss which would result from unread professional books.

There is an incidental advantage which might result from an abandonment of the county institute. It might lead to a radical renovation of the county superintendency. There are a great many county superintendents who belong to the age when the county institute originated and flourished. If the institute were abolished, it might be possible to secure school supervisors who are professionally competent. If the energy now devoted to the organization of institutes were concentrated on professional activities, it is altogether possible that schools would profit to a degree comparable to the degree to which institutes benefited public education in that far-off day when they were the chief devices for the dissemination of educational ideas.

From 1900 on many similar arraignments of teachers' institutes have been made. The feeling has spread rather generally that institutes are an anachronism and should be discontinued. They arose in the middle of the nineteenth century, when summer schools for teachers were unknown, to supply a distinct need in the training of teachers. They were conducted somewhat on the plan of a school in which all the teachers took an active part. Later this school feature was largely eliminated and the institute has developed into a chautauqua where teachers sit and listen to lectures.

The aims of teachers' institutes. Although as a result of the criticism of teachers' institutes indicated above, a few states have annulled the statutes requiring these annual meetings, general practice in the United States is to make legal provision for them and to indicate their purposes. Practically every state having a county system of education has made the teachers' institute an integral part of its teacher-training program. It is important to note that these states have defined more or less specifically, the purposes of the institute. The following quotations are taken from the school statutes of the states listed.

Alabama. As a means of improving beginning teachers and teachers in service in the public schools of the state, teachers' institutes shall be held annually.

Arizona. It is the duty of the county superintendent to preside over teachers' institutes and to secure the attendance of lecturers competent to instruct in the art of teaching.

Arkansas. It shall be the duty of the state superintendent to outline the work of said institute or normal in methods of classroom work, theory and art of teaching, arrangement of program, community and school activities, the practical work of the school, and such other work as he may deem proper.

Connecticut. The state board of education shall seek to improve the methods and promote the efficiency of teaching by holding meetings of teachers for the purpose of instruction in the best methods of administering, governing and teaching the public schools.

Illinois. The county superintendent shall hold an annual institute not fewer than five days for the instruction of teachers and those who may desire to teach.

Indiana. At least one Saturday each month shall be devoted to township institutes or model schools for the improvement of teachers.

Kansas. County superintendent shall hold annually a normal institute for the instruction of teachers and those desiring to teach.

Louisiana. State Board of Education shall adopt annually suitable professional books for use in the institute work.

Maine. Teachers' Institutes are to be held for the purpose of mutual improvement in the science and art of teaching and of creating popular interest in, and diffusing a knowledge of, the best methods of improving our public school system.

Maryland. Although the state law provides for institutes in Maryland,

they are no longer held there. In every county, however, a teachers' meeting is held for one or two days preliminary to the opening of schools. More than 30% of the teachers attend summer school each year, the state law providing "that the county board of education shall pay to each teacher who attends an approved summer school for six weeks and who receives credits for work done, the sum of twenty-five dollars (\$25) towards defraying the expense of the summer school when such attendance is necessary for the renewal of a certificate."

Minnesota. The Commissioner of Education shall provide for the instruction and training of teachers *in professional and academic work.*

Nebraska. For the purpose of allowing teachers an opportunity to *improve themselves in the art of teaching and to promote uniform methods of instruction* in the public schools of the state, county teachers' institutes shall be organized.

North Carolina. The county superintendent shall hold each year such teachers' meetings as in his judgment *will improve the efficiency of the instruction in school.*

Ohio. The county superintendent shall as often as advisable assemble the teachers . . . of the country school districts *for the purpose of conference on the course of study, discipline, school management, and other school work, and for the promotion of the general good of all the schools in the country school district.*

Oregon. Institutes shall be organized for the instruction of teachers and those desiring to teach. May substitute *a training school of three weeks to instruct in the art of teaching, methods of class work, arrangement of program and the practical work of the schoolroom.*

Pennsylvania. The county superintendent is to call the teachers of the public schools to assemble and to organize themselves into a teachers' institute *for their improvement in the science, art, and history of education.*

West Virginia. As a means of *improving teachers and fitting them for more effective service in the schools of the state*, teachers' county institutes shall be held annually.

Wisconsin. For the instruction of the teachers of his county or district *in school management, methods of teaching, and the branches taught in the public schools*, the county superintendent shall call an annual institute.

A composite statement of the purposes presented in the legal enactments cited above would be about as follows:

The teachers' institute is both a temporary normal school and a conference. Its function as a professional school is to train

beginning teachers and those in service by providing instruction in classroom methods, the course of study, school management, discipline, and rural-school technique by means of regular classes, lectures, demonstrations, and reading-circle work. Its function as a conference place is to furnish a medium for the interchange of ideas and suggestions between supervisor and teachers, to provide an opportunity for the superintendent to advise with his teachers—a meeting of the Committee of the Whole for the promotion of the general good of the schools.

Aims of teachers' institutes as determined by county superintendents. Ross⁶ presents a comprehensive study of the aims of county teachers' institutes as reported by county superintendents, teachers, and others. The county superintendents chose in their order the following as the chief aims of the county institute: (1) professional inspiration, (2) methods of teaching, (3) impetus to professional reading.

Ross in commenting upon these aims says: "It is rather curious that the county superintendents . . . hardly indicate or even intimate that some valuable aims of the institute might be such items as, the discussion of immediate school problems, professional solidarity, exchanging of ideas among teachers, social contacts or new movements in education."

Aims of teachers' institutes as suggested by district superintendents and supervising principals. The five chief aims of the institute in the judgment of supervisory officials as reported by Ross are: Professional inspiration, methods of teaching, discussion of immediate school problems, exchange of ideas, and social contacts.

Aims of teachers' institutes as suggested by the teachers themselves. Ross questioned 2,305 teachers as to the most important aims of the county teachers' institutes. Their replies indicate their chief contributions in the following rank.

⁶ Carmon Ross, *The Status of County Teachers' Institutes in Pennsylvania* (University of Pennsylvania, 1922), p. 24 ff.

1. Professional inspiration
2. Methods of teaching
3. Discussion of immediate school problems
4. Exchange of ideas
5. Subject matter
6. Social contacts
7. Conference with county superintendent

Aims of teachers' institutes as suggested by educators in state teachers' colleges and universities. A group of educators from state teachers' colleges and universities, and specialists from the United States Bureau of Education responded to Ross's question concerning the aims of the teachers' institute with the following information:⁷ "Professional growth of teachers, knowledge of changing conceptions of education, appreciation of the great work teachers are in, real instruction in methods, keeping the corps of teachers alive, and breaking down school and district lines."

Aims of institutes as formulated by state departments of education. Continuing the summary of Ross's findings, reports from state departments of education indicate that the chief aims of the teachers' institute are:

1. Methods of teaching
2. Professional idealism
3. Esprit de corps
4. Clearing house for state department of education
5. Scientific progress in education
6. Instruction in subject matter

It is evident that the differences in the formulation of the working aims of teachers' institutes expressed by the groups quoted above make impossible a specific statement of ideal aims or purposes. It is quite clear that the chief aims of the institute should be the meeting of the teachers' professional needs in the particular county and the discussion of supervisory plans for the educational work within the county.

These two aims are well worked out in the statements of

⁷ Carmon Ross, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

purposes given by supervisors in Minnesota and Maryland. Anna Swenson,⁸ state inspector of rural schools for Minnesota, and in charge of teacher institutes, says:

The general purpose of institute work is to continue the training of the teacher in service by helping to solve some of the problems which have actually been met, making definite applications of general knowledge in school management and methods, and in every way assisting the teacher in relation to her specific task. The time is about equally divided between the state program and the work which the county superintendent especially desires to present to his teachers. The institute, then, has a twofold purpose:

1. It gives an opportunity to do a somewhat unified piece of work throughout the state in actual instruction given, and to acquaint the rural teachers with state movements and policies.

2. In each county the county superintendent has an opportunity to work out with all the teachers the plans for the county educational program of the year. He may also give time to such county workers as the public health nurse, club leader, county agent, and others who coöperate with him in the county activities.

II. TYPES OF COUNTY TEACHERS' INSTITUTES

The organization meeting. In most counties throughout the country there is held before the opening day of school a preliminary teachers' meeting. Often this meeting is in the form of a training school. It varies in duration from one to five days, although in a few states it is a regular six-weeks summer school. A study of 135 programs of meetings of this type indicates that they differ widely in character, varying from a meeting lacking a definite objective as evidenced by the unnamed addresses of a heterogeneous group of speakers, to one carefully departmentalized with the general session devoted to organization and administrative problems and the sections providing discussions of detailed teaching methods. Standards and objectives are conspicuously absent. Discussion of technique and methods are to so high a degree generalized that they do not meet fairly the profes-

⁸ Anna Swenson, "Teachers' Institutes in Minnesota," *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 1, No. 9, p. 407.

sional needs of teachers. Instead of developing an *esprit de corps* the topics presented leave teachers with a dislike for professional meetings, and a desire to avoid them because they symbolize the old type of institute, lacking in specific purposes—"a prolonged meeting based on generalizations where teachers sit dressed in hats and gloves, and sometimes, coats, and only listen—unable to give sustained interest and attention necessary for even a minimum of benefit."⁹

Jewell Simpson¹⁰ has said, "Some type of working conference of teachers and supervisors, preceding the opening of school in the fall, is necessary for the definition of *county educational problems and policies*, for the organization of local teacher initiative, and for the induction of new teachers in service."

This preliminary meeting may provide for the following needs:

1. The presentation of the educational program for the year
2. A definition of county educational policies
3. The setting up of standards and objectives
4. The disposition of routine administrative matters
5. The interpretation of the county course of study
6. The induction into service of beginning teachers
7. The development of *esprit de corps*
8. Provision for the professional needs of teachers

A careful examination of the programs of numerous institutes fails to find many individual teachers' meetings which measure up to these standards. Either no attention is given to the development of a county program of education or the institute fails to provide for the professional needs of teachers.

The inspirational institute. A second type of institute is that which, for lack of a better title, has been called the inspirational institute. It is often the first and only meeting of the year, or it may be one of a monthly series of meetings. It is characterized

⁹ Theresa Wiedefeld, "The Meeting Preliminary to the Opening of School," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 5, No. 1, p. 25.

¹⁰ Jewell Simpson, "Worth-while Teachers' Meetings," *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. 5, No. 1, p. 25.

by the "general" tone of the addresses given as contrasted with the technical feature of the departmentalized meeting discussed later. It offers no sectional programs. It gives evidence of a lack of careful planning since so many of its topics are merely labelled "addresses" without further definition. It draws its speakers from among the following occupational groups, arranged in order of frequency; normal-school instructor, university professor, member of state department of education, college professor, lecturer, entertainer, president of college, city superintendent, state superintendent, representative of social agency, state official, clergyman, high school principal, county librarian, supervisor, health officer. The teacher, the county superintendent, and the supervisor rarely appear on the list of speakers. It is distinguished from other types of institutes by the "inspirational" addresses given to the teachers. The titles of addresses selected from a few programs of such institutes follow:

Sources of power	Democracy and education
The spirit of our work	"Blow your horn"
Education and the cave	Friendship
The looking glass	Immigrant backgrounds
The function of the teacher	Moral education
Freedom and the truth	An interpretative appreciation

Not all of the addresses are of this type. Out of a total of 170 tabulated addresses given at inspirational institutes not more than 15 could be classified as dealing with principles or methods of teaching. Even many of these are rather indefinite as is indicated by the following illustrations:

- Mechanics of reading
- Reading teaching methods
- Problem-solving method
- How to read a book
- The use of voice in teaching

It is difficult to see how such an institute can in any measure realize even the educational objectives set up as valid a generation ago.

The instructional institute. Contrasted with the inspirational institute is the teachers' meeting of the instructional type. At its best it is characterized by the following features:

1. Provision for teachers without experience
2. Some demonstration teaching
3. Specific instruction in method of various subjects
4. Provision for questions and discussion by teachers
5. Differentiation of technique for upper and lower grades
6. A unified program around some central theme
7. Speakers who are acquainted with teaching problems
8. A large proportion of its topics of a practical, professional nature

The order of speakers is in marked contrast to the order at the inspirational meeting. Teachers lead the list, followed by city and county superintendents, supervisors, university professors, normal instructors, representatives of state departments of education, county nurses, et cetera. There are no general lecturers, entertainers, book salesmen, or politicians on this list. Many general educational talks and inspirational addresses are given at these meetings, but they do not predominate. The teacher is a vital factor and is given an opportunity to grow professionally through her own activity.

The departmentalized institute. The teachers' institute that provides both a general meeting and a number of departmental conferences or sections is found in many counties. These institutes are usually of the annual type, although some are organized on the monthly basis. The general session usually comes the first hours of the morning and afternoon. In some instances the first and last hour of each session is used for the general sessions. In a few places it is sandwiched in between two sectional conferences.

A study of fifty-three such institutes held in twenty-three states shows that they may be grouped into three general types as follows:

1. *The institute sectioned on the basis of different types of schools represented.* In such institutes there are provided separate

sections for rural teachers, other elementary teachers, and high-school teachers. All of the teachers meet together for the general program.

Variations of this type provide for closer departmentalization. Some institutes have sections for rural schools, primary, intermediate, grammar, and high-school departments. Others create a section for each of the following groups: first and second grades, third and fourth grades, fifth and sixth grades, seventh and eighth grades, and high-school departments.

2. *The institute in which the basis for sectioning is the subject presented.* In such an institute one section may be devoted to arithmetic, another to reading, and so on. The entire institute is organized as a temporary normal school with a general assembly preceded or followed by regular classes in the subjects to be taught in the elementary or high school, and including such subjects as school management, special methods, and seat-work activities.

An elaboration of this type of institute provides special programs in elementary art, high-school art, elementary physical education, secondary physical education, and so on. No special attention is given to the one-teacher rural school and little emphasis is placed upon the elementary-school content subjects. Such a meeting is often held as part of a county or sectional teachers' association convention.

3. *The institute that provides sections for teachers of varying experience.* Some institutes have a special section for beginning teachers. This is especially common when organization matters are discussed. The county superintendent has a distinct problem in discussing with beginning teachers the organization of the school, teachers' reports, county examinations, attendance, the course of study, and so on.

It is quite evident that the departmentalized institute is looked upon as an improved form of the general institute. It is so organized as to permit the retention of the desirable features of the general institute and at the same time to provide for

the diversified interests of a large group of teachers who come from various types of schools.

The writer has made an analysis of the topics presented at fifty-three such institutes held in twenty-three states in order to determine whether this type of institute meets the standards set up on page 386. It is obvious that these standards are not met. Space does not permit the printing of the topics presented, but it is safe to conclude that less than one-half of them can justify their appearance on a teachers' institute program. The topics are general and uninteresting in name. One speaker discusses, in twenty minutes, methods of teaching rural subjects, English, penmanship, and arithmetic; another speaks on "rural-school methods"; and a third takes "language" as his subject.

The departmentalized teachers' institute may be of sufficient value to justify its retention if its program is carefully constructed. At its general sessions the county superintendent should care for the necessary administrative details, present and discuss the course of study to be used in the schools of the county, present the educational and supervisory program of the year as formulated by teachers and supervisors, and make the platform of this general meeting a forum for the discussion of vital, fundamental educational problems. The sectional meetings should be given over to the more detailed discussion of principles, methods, and materials of instruction. The teacher should not be a mere spectator at these proceedings, but should realize that her improvement will come only through her own activity, that she is a coworker and not a mere cog, and that her intimate contact with the child gives her a point of view which can neither be overlooked nor ignored.

The "demonstration" institute. The teachers' meeting that is characterized by demonstration teaching is usually not a county-wide meeting, but it is of the "group" type discussed fully in Chapter IX. However, a few county institutes feature demonstration teaching and make it the "high light" of the program. These demonstrations usually occur as a part of a sectional

program. At their best, the objectives to be realized are known to the teachers in advance; the demonstration lesson is followed by its complete analysis and evaluation by the supervisor, and discussion by the observing teachers.

The "reading circle" institute. Still another type of institute is that which centers around the professional reading done by the teachers of the county. The methods of handling this work vary. In some counties, teachers are assigned chapters of a selected text for discussion. In other counties they are assigned topics discussed in the book with additional reference material bearing upon the topic.

It is impossible to rate highly an institute wholly devoted to professional reading-circle work. Undoubtedly, some time must be devoted to it in order to meet certain state certification requirements. Professional reading to be most valuable must relate to some definite problem under discussion or investigation, some perplexing situation that must be solved. The same principles of motivation which apply to classroom instruction are valid here. Professional reading should center about the county program for the improvement of instruction in definite fields and around related problems under investigation by the teacher. This, of course, does not apply to the general professional reading that the teacher will do to keep abreast of the educational times, but to the program of professional reading for the teachers of the entire county.

The "contest" institute. In many counties, particularly those in which the county superintendent is the only supervisor, much of the supervision is done indirectly by stimulating the teacher to attain higher levels of instruction by means of contests of various types. An examination of the contests announced by county superintendents in administrative bulletins shows that most of them are for exploitation purposes. They include the following types: poster and essay, declamatory, oratorical, field and play days, spelling, health, D. A. R. history, better English, vitalized agriculture, music memory, stock-judging, poem mem-

ory, club work, home lighting, safety, noxious weeds, Old Ironsides campaign, American legion essay, American Chemical Society essay, Manufacturer's essay, fire building, more milk, league of women voters, good roads, and "mail parcels early" contests. This number does not exhaust the list. Many of them are of direct instructional value.

In some counties the institute centers around the contest idea. The program is made up almost entirely of final county contests. Such institutes are usually held in the spring and come as a culmination of the year's contest work in the various schools. Pupil winners of district contests meet at the county seat for the final county contest and this meeting becomes the spring institute for the teachers.

Joint institutes. In a number of states legal provision is made for holding institutes jointly with other counties or jointly with other educational agencies. In some sections of the country the state is divided for institute purposes, each division comprising three or four counties. The character of these institutes differs little from those described above, except that for administrative announcements and organization work the teachers of each county meet separately for a brief period.

In a number of counties, teachers and school-board members meet together annually. At such meetings most of the instruction deals with administrative matters. Topics like the following are presented:

- Health work in the schools
- Director's duties relating to the teachers' retirement fund
- Directions for the coming election
- Some responsibilities of school officers
- How disease is spread
- Reading circle reports
- Discussion of plans for field day
- The qualities in teachers that school boards pay for
- How we solve the transportation problem

Not so frequent, but occurring occasionally, are teachers' institutes held jointly with parent-teachers associations, boys' and

girls' club conferences, patrons, taxpayers, town boards, school-improvement associations, women's clubs, farmers' clubs, and economic conferences. Such joint meetings can be made valuable in providing an opportunity to interpret the public schools to the people and to bring back to the teacher the point of view of parents, taxpayers, and allied groups. These joint meetings cannot, however, take the place of a good rural supervisor.

The state-initiated institute. It was pointed out in the discussion of the legal provisions for teachers' institutes, that in some states these teachers' meetings are controlled directly by the state superintendent of schools. There are some decided advantages of state supervision of institutes. It is possible to center the attention of the teachers of the entire state on a few educational problems. An analysis of the state-initiated county institute programs gives the following "high points."

- A definite objective
- A program of educational improvement presented
- Elimination of the "general lecturer"
- Trained institute conductors
- Special emphasis on a few subjects each year

Minnesota has had a unique system in operation. The legislature authorized the state commissioner of education to place institute workers in each county for a few days followed by one- or two-day conferences with teachers and the county superintendent. The purpose of this plan was to find out in what work the pupils were weak, so that the institute worker would know what subjects to stress at the teachers' meeting. The average institute speaker comes from a university or teachers' college. He does not have a knowledge of school conditions in the county where he speaks. This plan made it possible for the institute instructor to become somewhat acquainted with local situations. The institutes of Minnesota are under the supervision of the state rural-school inspector. Institute instructors selected by her go from county to county holding teachers' institutes. A portion

of the time at each institute is given over to the county superintendent for the presentation of the county program.

In commenting on state versus local direction of institutes, Miss Lommen¹¹ says:

Twelve state departments report the formulation of the institute programs in the state office and their application uniformly throughout the state; twenty-one state departments solicit and prefer suggestions from county superintendents and supervisors as to local needs. Only four of the entire number reporting make provision for progressive units of work arranged on the rotation plan and covering several seasons. Intensive work on one or two subjects for one year, with a careful comparison and checking of results in the follow-up work has much to commend its consideration and is a present deficiency of the institute work which needs constructive attack. The three-year schedule of one state concentrated effort on geography, nature study, and their allied arts during the first year; the second year's institutes spent their entire time on history, civics, and health; and the third year was given over to English and penmanship. This plan effectively meets the criticism so often advanced, the lack of unity and singleness of purpose in the character of programs provided for experienced teachers especially.

Although the state-initiated county institute has some advantages over the county-controlled type, a fair evaluation of its effect leads one to believe that its growth should not continue. The superintendent is the chief educational leader of the county system of schools. He should be the one jointly responsible with the teachers for formulating the program of teacher growth. It is to be admitted that the method of selecting county superintendents by popular election—a method in vogue in many of our states—does not guarantee efficient county supervision and administration. However, the cure lies, not in removing control from this officer, but rather in providing machinery and salary inducements that will result in the selection of well trained officials, will provide permanent tenure for those who are successful, and will provide as adequate supervisory assistance for the

¹¹ Georgiana Lommen, "The Teachers' Institute as an Agency for Training Teachers in Service," *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 1, October, 1921, p. 60.

county superintendent as is now provided for the city superintendent. Removing responsibility from the county superintendent results in loss of respect on the part of his teachers and loss in prestige which is necessary to educational leadership.

Principles underlying successful teachers' institutes. In this chapter the discussion of teachers' institutes up to this point has concerned itself largely with past and current practice. The institute "as was and as is" has been presented. Out of this analysis and evaluation should come some statements of sound principles to guide those responsible for teachers' institutes in bringing about their rejuvenation.

1. *The purpose of the institute should be definite and known to the teachers.* They should be evident in the programs offered to teachers. Many institute programs sent out to teachers do not give the name of a single topic to be discussed. The program runs much as follows:

- 9:00—Enrollment of teachers
- 9:15—Announcements
- 9:30—Music. High-school glee club
- 9:45—Address—Professor Blank
- 10:30—Music—quartet
- 10:45—Recess
- 11:00—Address—Professor Blue
- 11:45—Announcements
- 12:00—Noon intermission

It is not remarkable that teachers use their ingenuity to evade the watchful eye of the superintendent and to go shopping while such a program is being presented.

2. *The program should have intrinsic value and be interesting to teachers.* Teachers do not require the services of an entertainer at an institute. They do not need to be amused in order to be interested. Provision for expert help on specific teaching problems will awaken their interest. The time of a general program should not be used to discuss the problem of a special group, or vice versa.

3. *The content of the program should be within the range of the teacher's experience and training.* The speaker must "come down to earth" and talk on the level of the teacher's training, while at the same time endeavoring to raise the level of her accomplishment.

4. *The teachers should participate in determining the aims, purposes, activities, and achievements of the institute.* The absence of teacher responsibility and participation is an important factor in bringing about such universal condemnation of the traditional institute.

5. *The meeting should always be one of a series*, that is, it should look back to earlier meetings and forward to future meetings. The meeting should provide for continuous growth of teachers. It should summarize growth, check up achievement, and set goals for future growth.

6. *The program should meet the needs of special groups of teachers*—those without experience, the rural group, the primary, intermediate and grammar grade groups, and so on.

7. *The institute program should stress new and controlling movements in education*, problems of educational policy, supervisory programs, experimental work, and specific schoolroom problems.

8. *The institute is to be used as an agency of constructive supervision.* It should not be used for the purpose of criticizing teachers' techniques or behavior. Weak supervisors frequently offer criticisms in open meeting because they lack the courage to make them to teachers personally.

9. *The institute program should be connected intimately with the county program of supervision.* At this meeting the tentative objectives of the year should be presented, discussed, and revised. Committees of teachers to work on the curriculum and other phases of the supervisory program should be authorized and appointed. Tentative plans for other meetings, demonstration centers, experimental work, testing programs, and so on, should be suggested, discussed, and perfected.

A pertinent suggestion is that the name, "institute," be no longer used. It brings up so many unpleasant associations and has through long practice become so closely identified with "imported" speakers, passive listening, and compulsory attendance that its rejuvenation probably could be more quickly accomplished by a rechristening.

Finally, the legal requirement of the institute should be eliminated. It is no longer necessary as a brief normal school for teachers. Modern teacher-training facilities make such provisions no longer necessary. If the institute is to be rejuvenated it must become an opportunity, a challenge, an adventure, not a requirement.

Topics for discussion and study at teachers' institutes. There are so many problems in education as well as many proposed solutions that no difficulty should be experienced in finding worth-while topics for discussion and investigation at teachers' meetings. The following list is merely suggestive and not inclusive:

1. A careful analysis of the course of study. Adding to the course of study, revising the course of study—the whole field of coöperative curriculum-building—provides constant material for good meetings
2. Well organized and well taught demonstration lessons involving subject matter from the course of study, followed by a critique and free discussion. Some of the things which may be illustrated and explained by means of demonstration lessons are: the project method, the necessity for lesson planning, clever drill devices, and so on
3. Study and discussion of remedial work following the standardized tests
4. Study of the classification of pupils
5. Study of the promotion of pupils, involving age-grade problems
6. The county educational program for the year. This program should be arrived at through the coöperation of superintendent and teachers. Teachers knowing intimately the problems of their own schools have a great deal to contribute to the formulation of the educational program. The entire work of education in a county is a coöperative democratic undertaking. Working plans of educational campaigns as well as results should be arrived at on the same basis
7. Lesson planning. Many teachers are weak in lesson planning. The

necessity for planning, economical methods of doing it, and the benefits of it should be made clear. One or more lesson plans used by successful teachers may be mimeographed and distributed for discussion

8. The project method of teaching—its advantages, its difficulties and dangers

9. Sound methods of providing for individual differences

10. The review of the new textbook which has just been adopted, or the study of supplementary readers, or the inspection of any material offered for school use—all of these are sources of discussion

11. Definite statements of the standards of accomplishment expected in each subject in each grade

12. Comparison of results of two kinds of teaching to determine which is more effective

13. Presentation of plans for special help to be furnished teachers.

14. Reports on recent educational investigations accompanied by the application of their findings to local needs and problems

How to conduct teachers' institutes. Throughout the discussion the weak and strong points of present practice in conducting teachers' institutes have been pointed out. Those of value are summarized in the following suggestions.

1. All institute programs should be definitely planned and scheduled and placed in the hands of teachers some time in advance of the institute.

2. Since teachers are as interested as the supervisor in the success of the school, the meeting should be conducted on the "give and take" basis. The institute should encourage round table discussion. The superintendent is the leader guiding the discussion, preventing a monopoly of time by "talkative" teachers, keeping the attention of the group centered upon the specific problem, making sure that the meeting "arrives" somewhere, noting the material needed for future study, encouraging the diffident teacher to contribute.

3. A teachers' meeting, like an interesting address, should have a definite topic announced beforehand, should have its high lights, its periods of suspense, its summarized conclusion.

4. The meeting should come to a close while teachers are interested and working and with something worth while left undone.

5. The program for a series of meetings should be worked out carefully in advance by the supervisor with a specific problem carrying over through the series.

6. Certain teachers who have done a distinctive piece of work should be requested in advance of the meeting to contribute to the discussion, or they may be asked to report on the constructive work done.

Summary. The county teachers' institute was created to supply a distinct need due to the inability of normal schools to furnish a sufficient supply of well trained teachers. Both academic and professional instruction were offered in the early institutes, and they were conducted as temporary normal schools. The aims, purposes, and methods of conducting these institutes in the various states have been exceedingly diverse. Lack of proper organization and professional management and failure to change their aims with changed conditions have rendered them relatively ineffective. The aims most frequently mentioned are:

1. To acquaint new teachers with the county school system
2. To present the supervisory and administrative plans of the year
3. To acquaint teachers with textbooks recently adopted
4. To acquaint teachers with new developments in education
5. To give instruction in methods of teaching
6. To give instruction in subject matter
7. To give inspiration and to develop *esprit de corps*

The weaknesses of the traditional institute are not inherent but have been brought about by:

1. Failure to acquaint teachers with its real purpose
2. The introduction of the imported "inspirational" speaker
3. The "lyceum" attitude both of the administrators and the teachers
4. Legal enactments making attendance compulsory
5. Lack of participation by teacher in its organization and operation
6. Failure on the part of the supervisory and administrative officers in exercising professional leadership
7. Failure to make the institute an integral part of the county supervisory program

Its rejuvenation can be brought about by:

1. Providing a program of intrinsic value to teachers, carefully planned in advance of the meeting
2. Bringing the program within reach of the teachers' training and experience
3. Providing for adequate teacher participation in determining the aims, purposes, activities, and achievements of the institute
4. Providing for the needs of special groups of teachers
5. Presenting new and controlling movements in education
6. Using the institute as an agency for constructive supervision
7. Making the institute an integrated part of the county supervisory program
8. Eliminating its compulsory character

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PART V

THE APPRAISAL OF RURAL-SCHOOL SUPERVISION

CHAPTER XIV

THE EVALUATION OF RURAL-SCHOOL SUPERVISION

As has been indicated in Chapter II, comprehensive programs of supervision for rural schools have been established in more than a dozen states. The annual cost of the supervisory program in some states exceeds \$250,000. It is obvious that an accounting must take place at some time to determine whether this additional expense is justified. The proposal to extend this school service to rural territory throughout the country must be supported by a scientifically secured array of facts sufficiently imposing to justify the educator in asking for public funds. Certain questions suggest themselves.

Is supervision feasible and effective in rural areas? Does rural supervision show educationally valuable results? Can rural supervision be justified economically? Of the great variety of procedures used, can the most effective supervisory procedures be determined?

The advocates of supervision in rural schools claim certain general values accruing from this school service. They call attention to increased daily attendance of pupils in supervised areas. They state that supervised schools retain pupils for longer periods; that the standards of teaching are raised; that the results of supervision are visible in improved school buildings and modern equipment. Attention is directed to the evident fact that expert supervision is commonly regarded as essential to efficient teaching and learning in urban schools. Does an objective evaluation of rural supervision support the pleas for its further extension in rural areas?

How can supervision be evaluated? Within the past decade a number of studies dealing with the evaluation of supervision have been reported. A few of these studies deal specifically with supervision in rural schools. Some of them are uncritical, based upon the judgment of individuals; others are carefully made and evaluated in terms of the effects upon pupils. The activities of rural supervisors have been carefully checked and their importance estimated. The opinions of teachers in supervised areas have been secured, and the preponderance of opinion for or against supervision has been used as a basis for evaluation.

A more conclusive method of evaluating supervision is through the use of experimental groups and control groups. The plan is to have two situations alike in all essential respects except the factor of supervision. Ideally, for each factor in one group there is an identical factor in the second group, the only variable being the factor to be measured.

In applying this procedure to determine the results of supervision, it is necessary first of all to secure the two groups of schools, the one group supervised and the other unsupervised. Where the schools of one entire county are supervised, it is necessary to use the schools of another county, which is unsupervised, as a control group. The groups chosen are carefully matched as to the qualifications, age, training, experience, tenure and salaries of teachers, number of pupils enrolled, length of school year, type of school, and course of study. Finally, pupils are matched in intelligence and in ability to do school work. The only difference in the two groups of schools is that of supervision. The benefits derived from supervision can be determined under these conditions by giving standard achievement tests at the beginning and at the close of the test period in both groups of schools. The value of supervision can be expressed in terms of per cent of a year's work accomplished, or by comparison of gross scores resulting from tests. It must be kept in mind that the results from standardized tests alone are not complete measures of the value of supervision. Such tests may measure merely

skill or information. The more valuable and less tangible products of teaching and supervision are often unevaluated by such a testing program.

Fortunately, such evaluating procedures as are described above have been used to measure the results of supervision in rural schools in several states.

The value of the "zone" plan of supervision in Brown County, South Dakota. Pittman's pioneer study was undertaken to determine the value of a certain type of supervisory program.¹ His problem was, "What is the effect of supervision upon the work of rural schools when the supervision is done according to the zone plan?"²

The equivalent groups method described above was used in performing the experiment. Two groups of schools located in Brown County were selected for comparison. One group known as the experimental group was composed of fifteen schoolrooms in Brown County that received supervision during the year; another group known as the control group consisted of twenty-five schoolrooms in the county that did not receive supervision. The schools within the groups were so selected that there was substantial equivalence in the types of schools, length of school terms, social and economic status of communities, parentage of children, and age, education, experience, certification, and salaries of teachers employed.

As above stated, the zone plan of supervision was employed with the experimental group of schools, the experimenter using only one week out of each month for field service in the capacity of supervisor. The major supervisory activities carried on are indicated on page 89, Chapter III of this text.

In order to have reliable data from which to draw conclusions as to the value of supervision, the children were tested with standardized tests in the following functions:

¹ M. S. Pittman, *The Value of School Supervision* (Warwick & York, 1921).

² *Ibid.* See Ch. III, pp. 89-90.

1. *Functions Tested*

- a. Speed in reading, number of words per minute
- b. Speed in answering questions on material read
- c. Index of comprehension in reading
- d. Reading, Scale Alpha 2, number of questions answered correctly
- e. Spelling, percentage of words correctly spelled
- f. Written composition
- g. Penmanship, speed, number of letters written per minute
- h. Penmanship, quality
- i. Addition, number right
- j. Subtraction, number right
- k. Multiplication, number right
- l. Division, number right
- m. Fractions, number right

2. *Tests and Scales Used.* The following tests and scales were used in both the initial and final tests:

Reading:

Courtis Standard Research Tests, Silent Reading, No. 2.

Thorndike's Scale Alpha 2, Part I and Part II.

Spelling:

Ayres' Scale, five words each from columns L, M, N, O, Q, R, T, U, V, W

Different words from same columns used for final test

Composition:

The Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Scale

Penmanship:

The Ayres' Scale

Arithmetic:

The Cleveland Survey Test

3. *When Tests Were Given.* The initial tests were given between September 28 and October 10, 1919. They were given to the experimental group during the first three days of the first week. During the remainder of that week and the following week they were given to the control group. There were three schoolrooms in the experimental group and five schoolrooms in the control group not tested during the days mentioned above. They were all tested during the week of October 13 to 17.

The final tests were given between May 3 and May 14, 1920, and in the same order in which they were given during the initial test.

Summary of Equated Differences

The length of time that it would take the slower group to make as much improvement as did the faster group is expressed in the fractional part of a year. The rate of the control group is used as the basis in all cases. The degree of superiority of the fast group over the slow group is expressed as follows for each function.

1. Rate of silent reading57 years
2. Number of questions answered63 "
3. Index of comprehension in reading96 "
4. Reading, Scale Alpha 2, questions right	1.44 "
5. Spelling, percentage correct	2.07 "
6. Composition, Nassau Supplement Hillegas Scale Units...	.85 "
7. Penmanship, speed	1.13 "
8. Addition, number right77 "
9. Subtraction, number right	1.53 "
10. Multiplication, number right69 "
11. Division, number right69 "
12. Fractions, number right	1.68 "
13. Penmanship, quality, favoring control group76 "
Total number of points favoring experimental group	13.01
Total number of points favoring control group76
Algebraic sum of equated difference	12.25
The average equated difference is	0.942 years

The summary given above shows the degree of superiority of the experimental group over the control group in each of the functions mentioned. It will be noted that out of the thirteen functions compared the only one in which the control group was superior to the experimental group was in quality of penmanship. The experimental group did 194.2 per cent as much in the same length of time as did the control group.

The value of rural school supervision in Indiana.³ The state superintendent of public instruction, Henry Noble Sherwood, conceived the idea of demonstrating the value of rural supervision in order to furnish a valid fact basis for certain proposed

³ H. Noble Sherwood, "Value of Rural School Supervision: Results of Two-Year Demonstration in Indiana," *Indiana Educational Bulletin*, No. 84, 1926.

legislation. He was particularly eager to show the added efficiency of schools under competent and adequate supervision. Johnson and La Grange Counties were chosen in which to carry on the proposed experiment. Two other counties were selected as control counties. The control and the experimental counties contained in general equivalent groups of schools, any advantage being in favor of the control counties rather than the demonstration counties. He secured for each of the experimental counties two supervisors who were exceptionally well prepared.

The principal objectives of the demonstration are summarized in the report of the experiment as follows:

1. Improvement of instruction in speed and comprehension of reading; in arithmetic as to speed and accuracy and in relating problem-solving to rural needs; and in spelling
2. Improvement of the materials of instruction
3. Improvement of rural school life and health
4. Education of the people with regard to the work of the school
5. Better organization and administration of rural schools

With regard to the method of measuring the value of supervision the report presents the following statement:

The best measure of the value of supervision is the progress made by the pupils who are under its influence. In order to compare the progress made in the demonstration counties with that made in the control counties, standard tests were given near the beginning and near the close of each school year to all pupils in grades from the third to eighth. The tests used were modified forms of the Stanford Achievement Tests, including tests in reading, arithmetic, language, and spelling. These tests have been given to thousands of pupils and standards of progress grade by grade have been established. Their use makes it possible, therefore, to express in comparable terms the progress made by pupils in the demonstration and control counties. The first year tests were given during the week beginning October 8, 1923, and the week beginning April 7, 1924, and the second year, during the week beginning October 6, 1924, and the week beginning April 6, 1925. Uniform methods of giving the tests were followed in all the counties. They were given by members of college, university, and normal-school faculties, and by county and city superintendents and their assistants, who had had previous experience in such work.

Between sixty and seventy different persons helped in this work during the two-year period. In general, each person assisted for each of the four testing periods in the same county and as nearly as possible in the same school. The tests for both years were scored by a small group of trained clerks, working under careful and continuous direction.

With regard to the curricula it was agreed that considerable latitude would be permitted the teachers and the supervisors in the use of the state course of study, although this course was, of necessity, the general basis of the curricula. The chief work of the supervisor in this field was to determine how much flexibility was desirable, and to give constructive help to the teachers in their determination of the relative emphasis to be placed on the different studies.

In connection with the supervision of instruction, a fourfold plan was developed. First, the supervisors were to give general attention to all subjects included in the normal program, rather than to limit their efforts to a selected group of subjects and neglect all others. Second, while they were to supervise all subjects, they were expected to give special attention to individual teachers in their weakest subjects. Third, the supervisors were to help teachers work out reasonable standards of achievement in the several school studies towards which their efforts and the efforts of the pupils would be directed. In arriving at these standards published tests were to be used as far as possible. Fourth, supervisors were to help the teaching force by personal conferences, teacher visitation, demonstration teaching, teachers' meetings, supervised teacher study, and mimeographed memoranda. They were to establish a relation of personal and professional confidence between themselves and the teachers, and outline suggestions for improvement in coöperation with the teachers. In order that the teachers might take an intelligent and sympathetic part in the project, it was agreed that, with the supervisors, they should spend part of the time of the county institute, held just before the opening of school, in selecting and discussing the problems which were to receive immediate attention.

It was agreed that the administration of the schools was to be primarily in the hands of the county superintendents. The supervisors were expected to aid in improving administration, but it was felt that the superintendents should not make the mistake of using the supervisors as administrative deputies. This led to a clear differentiation between the duties of the superintendent and the supervisor.

The director acted as adviser to the supervisors and the county superintendents. Frequent conferences were held by the director and the county superintendents and supervisors to discuss policies, but the details

of their operation were left to the initiative and judgment of the respective superintendents and supervisors.

An important matter of organization settled in such a county conference was that of the division of the work of the supervisors. In Johnson County the work was divided on a regional basis, each supervisor taking a portion of the county and supervising all grades and all subjects in that territory. In LaGrange, however, the division of work was on the double basis of location and grades. The one-teacher schools of LaGrange were divided on the geographical basis. The consolidated schools were divided on the grade basis, one of the supervisors taking the first four grades and the other taking the upper four grades.

The work of the county superintendent. The county superintendents were placed in difficult positions, for, even before the demonstration began, reaction against the work had arisen in the minds of many of the trustees. The teachers, children, and parents were unaccustomed to supervision and the superintendent had the difficult task of reconciling the various conflicting points of view.

The superintendents were forced to modify their previous practices in an effort to support and not hinder the demonstration. In general they had the same administrative duties as before, but, because they were able to delegate the entire work of supervision to the supervisors, they had more time for administration.

One of these county superintendents undertook an intensive study of the problem of gradation and promotion, and conferred with the principals and teachers and supervisors in these matters about each individual pupil. The other county superintendent did a conspicuous piece of work in connection with school yard and school building housekeeping. This superintendent devised a wall card upon which were enumerated the various items that, if properly looked after, would add to the general comfort, the aesthetic appeal, and efficient working conditions of the pupils and teachers. As a result there was a literal revolution in the general appearance of the school yards, playgrounds, schoolrooms, and the individual desks of the pupils.

The work of supervisors. The immediate problems facing the supervisors were the reduction of the number of teaching periods per day, the proper grouping of pupils, particularly in small rural schools, and the securing of supplementary books and instructional supplies, the correlation of subjects, and the development of educative seat work.

The agencies through which the supervisors did their work were as follows: teachers' meetings and group conferences; circular letters; bulletins; personal visits; extension of division classes; demonstration classes; personal conferences; use of texts; guidance in professional

reading; instructional supplies furnished through the office, such as file books, reference sheets, textbooks, victrola records, stereoscope and stereograph, paper, pictures, and magazines; local teachers' associations; parent-teacher associations; and farmers' institutes and clubs.

The following summary of the work of one supervisor from August 13 to December 22, 1923, gives a concrete picture of the extent and variety of the supervisors' services:

Number of working days, August 13—December 22, 1923.....	114
Number of days spent in schools.....	58
Number of days spent at institutes and teachers' meetings.....	26
Number of days spent in the office.....	22
Number of days spent en route with car.....	5
Number of days spent in Indianapolis (car trouble).....	2
Number of days absent from work, quarantined during diphtheria epidemic.....	6
Number of days spent in securing speaker.....	1
Number of special visits to schools.....	54
Number of supervisory visits.....	85
Number of small group conferences with teachers.....	25
Number of parent-teacher associations' meetings attended.....	2
Number of conferences in office (approximately).....	60
Number of community meetings attended.....	5
Number of evenings spent in office.....	30
Number of public speeches made.....	5
Number of teachers visited when Woody-McCall Arithmetic Tests and Thorndike-McCall Reading Tests were given.....	34
Number of books loaned to schools.....	1,600

Test results better in demonstration counties than in control counties. The combined results of the tests in reading, language, spelling, and arithmetic show that during the first year of the experiment the schools of the demonstration counties taken as a whole accomplished 14.3 per cent more work than the schools of the control counties. During the second year, this superiority was even more marked, progress in the demonstration counties exceeding that made in the control counties by 25.7 per cent. In other words, the pupils of LaGrange and Johnson counties who enjoyed the advantages of supervision learned in the first year about a seventh more, and in the second year about a quarter more, than the pupils in the schools of Rush and Whitley counties, which had no supervisors.

In every grade in which tests were given, pupils in the demonstration

counties made the greater improvement. In the first year, the per cents by which the progress of pupils of the demonstration counties exceeded the progress of pupils in the control counties ranged from 6.5 per cent in the fourth grade to 23.8 per cent in the sixth grade. In second year, the smallest difference was in the third grade, where the progress in the demonstration counties was 14.6 per cent more than in the control counties; the greatest difference was in the seventh grade, where the demonstration counties did 37.9 per cent more work.

A review of the results by subjects also shows that the pupils in the demonstration counties made faster progress in every subject than the pupils in the control counties. The first year of the experiment, the smallest difference, 3.8 per cent in favor of the demonstration counties, was in arithmetical-reasoning, and the largest, 77.5 per cent, was in language. In 1925, the smallest difference, 9.0 per cent, in favor of the demonstration counties, was in spelling, and the largest, 85.3 per cent, was, as in the previous year, in language.

The superiority of the supervised counties was, during both years, more marked in the large than in the small schools. Schools having three or more teachers were classified as large schools, and those with one or two teachers, as small schools. In the first year, the small schools of the demonstration counties did on the average only 6.9 per cent more work than the small schools of the control counties, while the large schools of the demonstration counties did 18.8 per cent more work than the large schools of the control counties. In the second year, the differences in favor of the demonstration counties were 15.7 per cent in the small schools and 30.0 per cent in the large schools.

Thus it is apparent that the benefits derived by the children of the demonstration counties from the two years of supervision have been general. These benefits are evident in different types of schools, in the several grades, and in each of the most important subjects.

The additional instruction which the pupils of the demonstration counties received as a result of supervision was bought at a low cost. On the assumption that they advanced at the same rate throughout the entire school year as they did in the period between the tests, the children in the demonstration counties received, as a result of supervision during the first year, the equivalent of 22.9 extra days of instruction. At the current daily cost of instruction without supervision, this additional instruction would have called for an expenditure of \$38,559, whereas only \$14,021 was spent on supervision. During the second year, \$14,201 was spent on supervision, but it bought 41.1 extra days of instruction, which, at the current cost, would have called for an expenditure of \$71,636. In other words, in 1923-24 the pupils of Johnson and

LaGrange received in a school year of 160 days with supervision as much instruction as they would have received in a school year of 182 days without supervision. In 1924-25, the same pupils received in a school year of 160 days with supervision as much instruction as they would have received in a school year of 201 days without supervision. Supervision is obviously an effective and economical way of improving rural-school work.

Michigan study of the value of rural supervision.⁴ In a study of the value of supervision in rural schools of Oakland County, Michigan, the Rural Education Committee of the Michigan Education Association raised the following questions.

How can the educational policy of establishing a comprehensive program of supervision for rural schools be judged? Can the county justify the additional cost of operating its schools? Does supervision make schools any better? Do pupils learn more in supervised schools than they do in unsupervised schools? To what extent do pupils in supervised schools excel those in similar schools not having this service?

This investigation differed from the others reported in that a normal rural-school situation existed in which to experiment. By a normal rural-school situation is meant one in which the county superintendent chooses his supervisory assistants, who are responsible to him and to no one else; in which he approves all plans of work and directs all supervisory activities.

Sixty representative rural schools in Oakland County and an equal number in Macomb County were chosen for the experiment on the basis of furnishing equivalent groups of schools. The schools were carefully matched in the following qualifications of teachers: age, training, experience, tenure, and salary. The schools were also matched in number of pupils enrolled. The pupils were then matched in intelligence and in ability in school subjects.

As a means of measuring the amount of learning accomplished, all pupils in attendance in the schools in Grades 3-8 inclusive

⁴W. C. Hoppes, "The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County," *Michigan Education Association Bulletin*, No. 7, 1926.

were given the following tests: Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale, Form I; Woody Arithmetic Scale, Series B, Form I; Monroe Reasoning Test in Arithmetic, Form I; Wilson Language Error Test, Story A; Morrison-McCall Spelling Test, List I.

The plan of supervision used in Oakland County was essentially the same as that described in the Brown County, South Dakota, experiment. It is described more fully on pages 43-45.

The results of the experiment are indicated in the following table.

TABLE XX.—SUMMARY OF PERCENTAGES OF A NORMAL YEAR OF SCHOOL WORK ACHIEVED IN NINE SCHOOL SUBJECTS IN SUPERVISED AND UNSUPERVISED SCHOOLS

SUBJECT	SUPERVISED: OAKLAND	UNSUPERVISED: MACOMB
Reading	130	46
Addition	188	135
Subtraction	190	151
Multiplication	172	143
Division	154	100
Arithmetic reasoning	154	106
Correct answers	185	113
Language	180	24
Spelling	180	52
Average	170.8	97.0

The average of all these percentages was for the supervised schools 170.8, for the unsupervised schools 97. This means that the pupils in the supervised schools of Oakland County in the nine phases of the subjects tested accomplished 170.8 per cent of a normal year of school work; while the pupils in the unsupervised schools of Macomb County accomplished 97 per cent of a normal year of school work. The difference between these is 73.8, or 76 per cent; that is, the achievement of the supervised pupils was 76 per cent greater than the achievement of the unsupervised pupils.

The period between the fall and spring tests was approximately 150 school days. Assuming that the unsupervised schools achieved 150 days of school work in this time in the nine subjects tested, the supervised schools

accomplished the equivalent of 264 days of achievement in the same subjects.

According to all available information the pupils in the supervised schools were no more intelligent, nor were the teachers more competent than those in the unsupervised schools. In fact, in every respect in which both pupils and teachers were compared they were very similar, and whatever differences appeared were insignificant. The only difference, so far as can be determined, to account for the great learning on the part of the pupils of Oakland County is that their schools were organized under a systematic program of supervision which the schools of the neighboring county did not have. It is believed, therefore, that this experiment indicates the degree of improvement in instructional efficiency which may be secured by the introduction of a systematic program of supervision into a normal county school organization. In drawing this conclusion it is recognized that the improvement in the subjects tested may have had some influence upon the subjects not tested.

A second important consideration which should be kept in mind in interpreting the meaning of the improvement made by the supervised pupils is the fact that all pupils in both counties were considerably below standard in achievement at the beginning of the experiment. The results achieved, therefore, should not be interpreted to mean that the supervised schools were greatly superior to standard achievement. The facts should be interpreted to indicate that the achievement was much greater in the supervised schools than in the unsupervised schools, and at the end of the experiment the level of achievement of the supervised schools more nearly approximated the expected standards.

It is interesting to note that Lederle⁵ and a corps of supervisors re-surveyed the rural schools of Oakland County in 1929 and compared the achievements of the pupils in Grades 3-8 of that year with the achievements of pupils in the same grades in 1923 as reported above. In addition to comparison by means of a testing program, he compared the training, experience, age, tenure, and salary of teachers; the changes in school plants and equipment; increases in regularity of pupil attendance; increase in supervisory staff due to teachers' requests for help. He found marked improvements over the results of 1923.

⁵ E. J. Lederle, *A Re-Survey of the Rural Schools of Oakland County, Michigan*, mimeographed report, March, 1930.

Measuring the value of supervision in consolidated schools.⁶ The experiment here reported differs somewhat from three experiments previously reported in that the schools selected to ascertain the value of expert supervision of instruction were large consolidated rural schools with an eight months' term. The problem set for investigation was, "Is there a need for supervision in the rural consolidated schools of North Carolina, and if so, what is its value?"

In this experiment the equivalent group method was used. The statement made by the experimenter is to the effect that with the exception of supervision there were very slight differences in any of the important factors, and that such differences as there were tended to counteract each other with a slight favoritism to the control group. In electing equivalent groups Miss Southall used the following like bases:

- a. Schools—types, length of school year, enrollment, number of grades
- b. Teachers—training, experience, tenure
- c. Pupils—intelligence status, nationality, achievement tests
- d. Supervision—by county superintendents

The program of supervision used in the experiment was worked out by the State Division of Supervision. This program involved, first of all, a survey of the mastery of tool subjects as determined by the giving of standard achievement tests in reading, arithmetic, and spelling. The progress of the two groups of children was measured over a five-month period in the following functions:

1. Ability to comprehend what is read (Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale, Forms I and III)
2. Ability to spell commonly used words (Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale, Lists I and VIII)
3. Ability to add, subtract, multiply, and divide integers, common and decimal fractions, and denominate numbers (Woody Arithmetic Scale, Series B, Forms I and II)

⁶ Maycie Southall, "A Study of the Value of Supervision in Consolidated Schools," *Educational Publication*, No. 106 (State Department of Public Instruction, North Carolina, 1925), p. 31.

4. Ability to reason out solutions of one, two, three, and four-step problems (Buckingham Reasoning Scale, Forms I and II)

[*Activities of supervisors.*] Since supervision is to be considered valuable to the extent that it aids children to do better school work, space is taken here to give in a general way the activities of the supervisors, or what was done to promote the progress of the pupils in the supervised group that was not done in the control group. The following are the general means and devices used.

- A. A basis was laid for the improvement of instruction
 1. By using the preliminary test results together with the teachers' marks to determine the educational and mental status of classes and individuals
 2. By grouping the children for teaching purposes by subjects according to past achievements and ability to make progress, as follows:
 - a. Those capable of doing extra work
 - b. Those capable of doing the regular work of the grade
 - c. Those needing special drill and individual attention
 3. By selecting subject matter appropriate to the needs of each group
 4. By using formal and informal diagnostic tests to determine the types of error and causes of defects and shortcomings
 5. By working out mimeographed copies of suggestive devices for remedying the weaknesses and correcting the errors found to be most prevalent
 6. By checking results and thereby stimulating pupils and teachers to greater activity and effort
- B. Teachers were aided in connecting the details of classroom instruction with the aims and principles of education
 1. By observing them teach a lesson in its entirety, following it with a personal conference and references to instructional material on the subject.
 2. By demonstrating sound methods of teaching and proper use of materials.
 3. By arranging for, and preparing teachers to observe expert teaching followed by discussion.
 4. Through group and countywide study conferences.
 5. By directing the attention of the teachers to up-to-date articles on the methods that experimental work has shown to be best.
 6. Through direct training in diagnosing pupil deficiencies and planning the teaching procedure that experience and educational experiments have shown to be suitable for such cases.

TABLE XXI.—A COMPARISON OF THE PROGRESS OF THE TWO GROUPS BY SUBJECTS, BASED UPON THE COMBINED SCORES OF GRADES 4-7

SUBJECTS	DECIMAL PART OF THE NORMAL WORK OF A SCHOOL GRADE COMPLETED IN FIVE MONTHS OR .62½ OF A SCHOOL YEAR		PER CENT BY WHICH THE PROGRESS OF THE SUPERVISED GROUP EXCEEDED THE PROGRESS OF THE CONTROL GROUP
	Supervised	Control	
Reading63	.25	152%
Spelling93	.33	182%
Arithmetic—Fundamentals..	.98	.37	165%
Arithmetic—Reasoning90	.58	55%
Average86	.38	126%

The data obtained from this study show that:

1. When the results were considered for all the grades, the supervised group made more than normal progress in every subject measured, while the control group made less than normal progress in all subjects. (A comparison of the fall scores with the standard grade norm showed that no grade of either group had made normal progress in the last few years at least.)

2. The progress of the supervised group was more than double the progress of the control group in reading, spelling, and the four fundamentals.

3. Both groups made less progress in reading than in any other subject. In the supervised group the greatest progress was in fundamental processes in arithmetic, while in the control group the greatest progress was in reasoning or problem solving in arithmetic.

4. Out of sixteen differences before the results for all grades were combined, fifteen favored the supervised group.

5. The supervised group made normal progress or above in all subjects except sixth-grade reading and fourth-grade spelling. The control group made less than normal progress in all subjects except fourth-grade reading, seventh-grade spelling, fourth- and sixth-grade reasoning.

6. In the sixteen comparisons of achievement, the supervised group made normal progress or above fourteen times; the control group only four times.

7. On an average the children of the supervised group in the five months' period advanced 126 per cent faster than the children in the control group, or 2.26 times as fast.

8. In 100 days, the children of the supervised group on the basis of

the subjects measured received the average equivalent of 138 days of instruction; the control group equivalent of 61 days.

9. On a basis of the same difference for the entire term of 160 days, the children of the supervised group would accomplish the equivalent of 1.4 grades (221 days) while the control group would accomplish .6 of a grade (98 days).

10. Within the time at the disposal of all rural children in North Carolina, 7-14 years, adequate supervision of instruction would help the children obtain an education 2.26 times as good as the one now being received.

11. If the compulsory attendance law required the completion of standard elementary-grade work, at the rate of progress of the supervised group it could be completed in 5.7 years, or at a saving of 2.3 years for work or higher education and a proportional saving in the cost of instruction to the taxpayer.

12. Put in other terms, one county for an additional expenditure of \$350 for thirty-five days of supervision, purchased the equivalent of seventy-seven days of instruction. At the current daily cost of instruction in the control group this would have a monetary value of \$2,772.

13. Upon the same time allotment one supervisor could supervise thirty-six teachers. The services of one supervisor who could produce such results in the total results of thirty-six classrooms would be valued at \$12,474.

Evaluating the effectiveness of supervision by parishes in Louisiana. In Ascension and Assumption Parishes, Louisiana, a carefully controlled study⁷ was made to determine the effectiveness of supervision on a parishwide basis. The results of this study were as follows:

In September, 1926, the control parish made an average score of 32.5 when tested with the Standard Achievement Test; while in May, 1928, using the same form of the same test they scored 40.26, showing an improvement in composite score of 7.76, which is 23.9 per cent of its 1926 score. Similarly, the supervised parish, at the same time and with the same test, scored respectively 30.55 and 42.91, showing an improvement of 12.36, which is 40.4 per cent of the 1926 score. The rate of im-

⁷ J. E. Lombard, "Notes on an Experiment in Supervision," issued by the State Department of Education, Baton Rouge, La., 1928, taken from the *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930, p. 101.

provement in the supervised parish is therefore greater than that in the control parish by 16.5 per cent. It is a conservative assumption that at least as high a rate of advantage was maintained in the first and second grades; in fact, the figures of the tables indicate a higher rate.

In composite scores, in subject scores, in scores by grades, in scores for all grades combined, in all combinations considered, with the sole exception of the subject of spelling considered by itself, the supervised parish showed an unmistakable advantage under the influence of the supervision. The relatively excellent showing made by the control parish in the subject of spelling must be attributed to conditions in that parish rather than to want of uniformity in the supervision.

In the control parish in September, 1926, the average educational quotient of pupils from third to seventh grades inclusive was 88.87; and for May, 1928, it was 91.53, showing an improvement of 2.66 in educational quotient; while in the supervised parish the corresponding quotients were 89.92 and 99.17, or a difference of 9.25.

The average chronological ages in the two parishes were 11.38 years for the supervised parish and 11.79 years for the control parish. An improvement of 9.25 in educational quotient means $9.25/100$ of 11.38, or 1.05 years' improvement in the educational age of a group of pupils averaging 11.38 years of age. Hence, between the first and final tests the supervised parish improved approximately 12 months. Similarly, $2.66/100$ of 11.79 years is .31 years or approximately 4 months of improvement for the control parish. This means that the supervised parish gained an advantage in education as measured by the Stanford Tests of 8 months during the 2 years of the experiment among the pupils from third to seventh grades inclusive.

An evaluation of the experiments. The experiments reported above indicate that the value of supervision in rural schools can be measured objectively and expressed in quantitative terms. Attention is called to certain factors that tend to influence the results. The Pittman experiment in Brown County, South Dakota, was carried on under more than usually favorable conditions in some respects. The supervision was done by a graduate student in education who had had previous experience in the training of teachers. He had a small group of schools under supervision. Additional assistance was given by the state normal school in the same county. The experiment was set up purposely to be evalu-

ated. The situation was not a normal one. On the other hand, the supervisor spent but one-fourth of his time in supervision. Had he spent his entire time in supervision devoting three-fourths of it to field work and one-fourth to office work he would have been able to supervise forty-five schools—certainly a full-time load.

The Indiana experiment shows certain unusually advantageous features. It was directed by the Dean of the School of Education of the State University, who gave one-third of his time to the general direction of the experiment. The supervisors had a training and experience of such unusual quality as could not be provided for in all the counties of a state. The demonstration was adequately financed. The experiment was set up purposely to be evaluated. On the other hand it was carried through a two-year period, giving evidence that the results are a measurement of something more than a galvanic spurt.

The North Carolina experiment measured the value of supervision in schools employing one teacher for each grade; one pair of schools having seven teachers each and the other pair, eight and nine teachers respectively. The supervisors followed a program laid out by the Division of Supervision of the State Department of Education and were not responsible directly to the county superintendent.

The Michigan experiment presents a more nearly normal situation. The supervisors were selected by the county superintendent and were responsible to him for all plans and activities. A normal load of supervision was carried during the year. No outside agency gave direction in the work of supervision.

Table XXII gives the progress of the supervised and unsupervised schools in the four states. No comparisons should be made between states. The duration of the experiment, the type of pupils, the training and experience of teachers, and other factors, while properly equated as between supervised and control schools within the state, vary so between states that no correct inference can be drawn from a comparative basis. The table is inserted to show that supervision of rural schools is of definite

TABLE XXII.—COMPARATIVE PROGRESS OF SUPERVISED AND UNSUPERVISED SCHOOLS FROM FOUR STATES

STATE	PER CENT OF YEAR WORK COMPLETED		PER CENT BY WHICH PROGRESS IN SUPERVISED SCHOOLS EXCEEDED UNSUPERVISED GROUP
	Supervised Group	Control Group	
South Dakota	Equated difference in favor of Supervised Group .942 years		194.2
Indiana	88.0	70.0	25.7
North Carolina	86.0	38.0	126.0
Michigan	170.8	97.0	76.0

value. Pupils grow educationally more rapidly in supervised schools. Less time is lost, and, conversely, greater progress is made. This progress expressed in percentage of a year's work means a saving of many thousands of dollars—certainly much more than the cost of the supervisory service. It is evident that the operation of a program of supervision of rural schools is entirely feasible as a part of a typical county school organization.

Can the most effective supervisory procedures be determined? If we can justify rural supervision educationally and from the standpoint of its cost, the problem of determining the most effective supervisory procedures still remains to be solved. In Chapter XIII the county institute as an agency of supervision was discussed and its elements of weakness and strength pointed out. Other chapters of this text discuss group teachers' meetings and individual conferences with teachers. If group teachers' meetings are as effective as individual conferences much time and expense in rural supervision can be saved.

Very few experiments have been carried on to determine the relative value of various supervisory procedures. Help in this direction is coming, however. A recent study⁸ deals with the

⁸ Henry Harrison Fuller, *The Relative Effectiveness of the Group Supervisory Conference and the Individual Supervisory Conference*, Doctor's dissertation, School of Education, University of Michigan, 1929.

relative effectiveness of group conferences and the individual conference.

The study dealt with forty-eight one-teacher rural schools whose teachers had not been supervised except by the county commissioner of schools. Attention was limited to the school subjects, reading and arithmetic. Three preliminary tests were given to 756 pupils. Teachers were matched by the equivalent group method and divided into three groups. One group was supervised through semimonthly teachers' meetings, the second group was supervised by means of individual conferences following visitation by the supervisor. The third group constituted the control group and was unsupervised.

Fuller draws the following conclusions from his data:

The findings of this study show that the individual supervisory conference is more effective than the group supervisory conference as a means of improving the quality of both reading and arithmetic. The superiority of the individual conference over the group supervisory conference in the case of reading is more than three to one and in the case of arithmetic is more than one and one-half to one. The extent of superiority of the individual conference over the group conference is sufficiently large to be significant in the practice of elementary-school supervision.

Less objective evaluations of rural supervision. Many of the important outcomes of rural supervision do not lend themselves to the measurement procedures described on the previous pages. Nevertheless, such results are obvious and observable. These outcomes express themselves in changes in teaching, in the learning attitudes of pupils, and in the community itself.

Sherwood⁹ gives the following "other evidence of the value of supervision."

Other evidence of the value of supervision. Besides favorably affecting instruction, supervision was the direct cause of other improvements less easily measured. Personal opinion has some value in this connection, and

⁹ H. Noble Sherwood, *op. cit.*, p. 48 ff.

for that reason the judgments of different persons connected with the demonstrations are given.

Both county superintendents expressed themselves as being convinced that great progress was made during the demonstration. Not only did they notice a difference in the achievement of the pupils in their studies, but they also observed a marked difference in their general attitude toward the school.

The children themselves were appreciative. They enjoyed the tests that the supervisors gave, and were delighted with the extra books that were made available. They derived great pleasure and profit from the new study plan, which gave them more free time for extra reading, drawing, and handwork.

In one school the children became so much interested in improving their school that they made a survey of the building and grounds, called in the parents, made a report to them of their findings, led in the discussions which followed, and were instrumental in bringing about a resolution requesting the State Board of Health to examine their building with a view to condemning it for further use if it were found unfit. The example set by the pupils and parents in this particular school district was followed by the other school districts of the township, with the result that by the beginning of the second year of the demonstration all the school buildings in this township had been abandoned and in their place a modern, seven-room rural school building had been erected.

The teachers also testified to the value of supervision. In order that a wholly unbiased and free judgment might be given by the teachers the director of the demonstration, at the close of the first year of the experiment, wrote individual letters to each of the teachers questioning them about supervision, and requesting them not to sign their answers. Almost all replied.

To question one, which was, "Do you believe that a plan of supervision such as has been attempted in your county this year is worth while?" a fraction over 94 per cent of all who replied answered "Yes," while a fraction under 6 per cent said "No."

In answer to the second question, "Has the work of the supervisor been a help to you in solving your teaching problems?" 96 per cent said "Yes," while $3\frac{1}{3}$ per cent said "No."

In answer to the fourth question, "Would you as teacher in the county next fall desire the continuance of the work next year?" 93 per cent said "Yes," while $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent said "No."

To understand fully the great improvement which resulted from the demonstration it is necessary to have in mind conditions as they were

in the small rural schools in Johnson and LaGrange counties before the demonstration began, and what they were at the end.

The physical conditions were generally unfavorable to good school work. The one-teacher school buildings were typical box schoolhouses, built according to architectural ideas of half a century ago and of a construction that violated the principles of proper heating, lighting, ventilation, and sanitation. Heat was unevenly distributed; some of the children were sitting close to a hot, unjacketed stove, in excessive heat, and others were shivering near the windows. In many instances the plastering on the walls and ceilings was loose. Most of the rooms needed cleaning and redecorating. In general, the furniture was poor and did not meet the hygienic needs of the children. In thirty-one one-room schools in one of the demonstration counties over one hundred children were sitting in seats so high that their feet dangled in the air. In the rooms there were often piles of rubbish, parts of old desks and parts of other old equipment, dilapidated globes and maps, torn dictionaries, books with the covers off and leaves gone, torn window shades that would not roll. There were frequently broken steps and locks, and yards full of sticks and stones. Quite frequently there was a common drinking cup, a wash basin little used, and a common comb and towel, if towels were provided at all. The outhouses were in poor condition and the toilets were in many instances unscreened and unsightly. The playgrounds were small and in most places were lacking in equipment.

In almost all schools there was a general lack of instructional and supplementary books, paper, scissors, paste, clay, pencils, ink, construction paper, rulers, colored crayons, boxes, oak-tag pictures for charts and booklets—all of which contributed to the spirit of general apathy on the part of the children. They gave up too easily, worked too carelessly, and wasted time in not knowing what to do. To keep them out of actual mischief, they were often set to useless activities, such as laying toothpicks, and so on—activities that prevented idleness but contributed no educational stimulus. Very poor posture and lack of manners were commonly observed, and the pupils could not meet strangers except in a very timid and retiring way.

The teachers lacked ability to plan lessons and direct the study of the pupils. In instruction and in classroom management the results were mechanical. To illustrate: The pupils possessed the reading books required by law and these were in almost all instances too difficult for the grades in which they were used. The pupils, therefore, failed to do the work, consequently lost interest or formed the habit of laboriously spelling out the words. The reading was, therefore, without interpretation or expression. One of the county superintendents expressed the condition in the

following words: "I fear that so long as I live I shall be able to hear that monotonous drone that was called reading."

While conditions in these schools did not become ideal as a result of the demonstration, marked changes took place. Schoolrooms were cleaned and redecorated; window shades, curtains, and ventilators were provided. There were no longer the dangling feet. Yards were cleaned; shrubs and flowers were planted in many places; and almost without exception waving flags attracted the attention of the arriving visitors. The children welcomed with delight the supervisors, and the attractive books and other helps which they brought with them. Mechanical methods gave way largely to vital methods of instruction. The children became interested in their work, and there was a freshness and pride in their eagerness to show what they could do. In the words of one of the county superintendents: "One would not believe them (the schools) the same places that they formerly were. The children now have happy expressions on their faces; they are interested in their work; they have formed habits of industry."

Pittman¹⁰ reported that other returns not so easily measured were the increased interest of the school patrons in the school, the changed and improved social attitude of the people in the community, the increased professional growth of the teachers as indicated by the amount of professional reading done by them during the year, and the improved attendance of pupils in the experimental schools.

What rural teachers think of supervision. It is extremely hazardous to draw valid conclusions from the statements of teachers given in reply to questionnaires dealing with the value of rural supervision. The danger is that their replies may be colored by the desire to render a favorable judgment. This is not so true when the inquiry blanks come from persons carrying on an experiment and who do not hold a permanent supervisory or administrative relationship to the teacher.

The replies to questions dealing with the value of supervision in the Michigan experiment are summarized below. It is to be kept in mind that the letter asking for the reactions of teachers

¹⁰ M. S. Pittman, *The Value of School Supervision* (Warwick & York, 1925).

called for a sincere opinion and that the names of neither teachers nor schools were used.¹¹

	Yes	No
1. Do you like to teach with supervision better than you did without it?	51	3
2. Do you think that supervision work helps you to do better teaching?	56	4
3. Do you think that the attendance at zone meetings for one year is equivalent in professional value to a six weeks' summer school?	47	11
4. Do you think that your pupils learn more with supervision than they did without it?	54	3
5. Do your pupils have a greater interest in school with supervision than without it?	55	3
6. Do you think that your pupils have learned any valuable lessons in social attitudes, citizenship, or conduct from the work of the helping teachers?	53	4
7. Has your schoolhouse, furniture, or playground equipment been improved as a direct result of the supervisory program?	36	24
8. Has your teaching equipment such as maps, library books, textbooks, charts, seatwork, supplies, and so on, been improved or increased because of supervision?	48	9
9. Have the people of your district shown a greater interest in school since supervision has been established?	45	10
10. In your opinion as a citizen of the county, do you think that supervision is worth as much as it costs?	52	6

The sixty teachers were overwhelmingly in favor of the supervisory program carried out in Oakland County, the ratio being fourteen to one. Although the manner in which the questions were given in the letter undoubtedly affected to some extent the replies of the teachers, the results given above agree closely with those of similar studies, in which a different type of blank was used.

In addition to answering the questions in the letter, the teachers were asked to write on the back of the sheet:

¹¹ W. C. Hoppes and Others, "The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County," *Michigan Education Association Bulletin*, No. 7, p. 19.

In addition to your answers to these questions, will you not write on the back of this sheet a *full, frank, and honest* opinion of just what supervisory work has meant (1) to you as a teacher; (2) to your pupils; (3) to the people of your community; and will you (4) particularly state how the supervisory work affected the learning of geography, history, writing, and other subjects that were not especially emphasized at zone meetings?

The opinions of the teachers vary widely as to the effectiveness of the program.

One of the four who are opposed to supervision does not see any benefit whatever in the program and condemns it in every respect; at the other extreme, five or six teachers declare that they would not again undertake to teach a rural school without supervision.

The objections that teachers make to supervision are summarized in the following statements:

The supervisors were theoretical and impractical

The supervisors emphasized non-essentials

The children dislike the extra work which the supervisor has them do, yet regard her visit as a playtime

Pupils dreaded the visit of the supervisor

Pupils are glad to see the supervisor come because they do not have to work

The experience of the older teachers was not respected

The teacher himself is more experienced and more competent than the supervisor

The professional meetings are tiresome and do not help the teacher very much

It makes the teacher work

The people think it a waste of time

Supervision is an experiment

In spite of these very pointed objections to supervision, two of the four teachers who make them are willing to say some good things about it.

Supervision would be helpful to a beginning teacher

The teacher would be just as willing to teach with supervision as without it

The children learn more with supervision than they do without it
The supervisor brings something new for the children to do
School equipment has been increased

It may be fairly said, therefore, that those who in general do not endorse supervision do not nevertheless unqualifiedly oppose it.

What answer do the fifty-six teachers make to the objections of the four? Fifty-two wrote at length expressing their opinions; only four failed to comment upon their reasons for approving the supervisory work.

Do these teachers like supervision? Here is their own testimony:

As a rural teacher having had supervision for two years, I want to testify that the helping teacher means everything to me. I believe that I should not try again without a great deal more training to teach in a one-room school without a helping teacher. I deeply regret that I could not have had supervision during the first years of my teaching experience. I would be a much stronger teacher and the pupils whom I have sent out would be stronger men and women.

In a supervisor we have someone to help us in our troubles, someone who appreciates our work, and someone who gives us new ideas. I would not want to teach where they did not have supervisors.

Supervision has meant much to me. This is my second year of teaching and if it had not been for supervision I never could have accomplished as much as I have. Ever since I started teaching I have had supervision. I found this very helpful the first part of my first year. I find that the friendly help and criticism is invaluable to me and I would not want to teach without it.

Many favorable comments of a similar kind are given in the report of the experiment.

Many studies¹² of this type have been made, practically all of them relating to supervision in cities. In general teachers speak

¹² E. L. Melby, *Organization and Administration of Supervision* (Public School Publishing Co., 1929).

very favorably of supervision, although they are quite critical of certain specific practices. Rural supervision has stimulated growth and the professional improvement of teachers; it has quickened the interests of the community toward the school; it has created more favorable learning situations for pupils.

Summary. At the opening of this chapter the following questions relating to the value of rural supervision were raised. Is rural supervision feasible and effective in rural areas? Does rural supervision show educationally valuable results? Can the most effective supervisory procedures be determined? Can rural supervision be justified economically?

Methods of evaluating supervision were suggested and the evaluating procedures used by a number of investigators were presented. Rural supervision has been evaluated by Pittman in South Dakota, by Sherwood in Indiana, by a committee of the Michigan Education Association in Michigan, by Maycie Southall in North Carolina, and by Lombard in Louisiana. Their experiments are reported in this chapter.

The experimental evidence reported is decidedly favorable to a program of rural supervision. Pupils in supervised rural schools show greater growth in achievement than do pupils in unsupervised schools. Changes in teaching procedures can be brought about by the rural supervisory program. The dollar value of rural supervision is clearly proved. Supervision procedures can be evaluated and the most effective selected. The by-products of rural supervision are expressed in greater community interest and a broader outlook upon life.

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CHAPTER XV

NEEDED RESEARCH IN RURAL SUPERVISION

In the preceding chapters attention has been called to the principle that supervision in rural schools and in urban schools is fundamentally the same, but that the conditions under which supervision is carried on make modifications of procedure essential. What, then, of research in supervision? Does its application to the rural field necessitate a separate presentation?

During the past decade a great deal has been accomplished in bringing together, organizing, classifying, and evaluating research projects in supervision. Barr and Burton¹ have an excellent chapter entitled "The Scientific Study of Supervision." The *Second Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction² is devoted to the scientific aspects of supervision. The *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence³ stresses this responsibility of the supervisor. A volume⁴ recently come from the press presents a most comprehensive analysis of the scientific study of supervision. Numerous articles in current professional magazines by Brueckner, Courtis, Waples, Steel, Powers, Gray, Cutright, and others present new techniques for measuring, analyzing, checking, and evaluating teaching. Do these techniques apply to supervision and teaching in the rural

¹ A. S. Barr, and W. H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (D. Appleton & Co., 1926), Ch. xv.

² *The Scientific Method in Supervision*, *Second Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1929.

³ *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930.

⁴ A. S. Barr, *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision* (D. Appleton & Co., 1931).

3. The organization of material was classified as "around type sentences," "fair," "not complete," "good," "not good."

4. In scoring motivation, one supervisor thought that the game was uppermost in the minds of the children, not the material employed; another found some evidences of motivation; a third felt that the need for such a lesson was sufficiently manifest to the teacher; others rated it as "fair," "good."

5. In fertility of suggestion the work of the teacher was judged to be fair, average, good. One observer believed that the teacher failed to bring prompt response.

6. In measuring the accomplishment of the pupil the following estimates were given:

a. The interest shown by the pupils was generally rated as "good," although two qualified this statement by saying that the interest was in the action and not in the subject matter.

b. The initiative displayed by the pupils was rated variously as "poor," "not much," "fair," "some," "not sufficient," "none of high type," "good," and "much—in the activity of the game."

c. The pupils were believed by some to have done nothing in organizing the materials. By others, organizing materials was rated as "poor," "slight," "fair" and "good."

d. The pupils' mastery of the assignment was described as: "not at all," "fairly well," "satisfactorily," "no evidence here," and "this will be tested later."

C. *Summary of evaluation of recitation.* Every possible type of answer was given to the question, "Was the purpose of the teacher realized?" The purpose "was not realized," "was not realized until near the close of the recitation," "was only partially realized," "was realized for the present time, but repeated drills would have to be given to make its realization permanent." Many supervisors stated that the drill was not effective because of insufficient repetition. One said, "Her route was too long." Another believed that the children who did not need the drill should have been exempted. The scramble to get papers and the boisterousness of the class offset the advantage of motivation in the judgment of many, and diverted the pupils from the real aim, which was ear-training in correct form of verbs. One critic said, "I see no evidence of real thinking on the part of the child." Another, "No more than one-half of the class had an opportunity to give oral response." Another, "The children should make the corrections in English, not the teacher." Others, "Freedom of action and ease of self-expression were developed," "The situation was a real one," "To me the situation was quite artificial. Newsboys do not

sit up straight necessarily. People do not usually take and hand or pass on the papers."

Undoubtedly this great variation in judgment is due to a lack of knowledge of objective methods of analyzing recitations and evaluating teaching procedures. On the other hand, some of it is due to the "Jehovah" complex so highly developed in the teaching profession. The thought unexpressed is, "This procedure is poor, because it is not like the way I would present the same lesson." With so subjective a measuring stick as this, it is not strange that supervisory judgments vary. This is noticeably true in rural supervision. Teachers are inadequately trained, relatively inexperienced, and immature. The older and more experienced supervisor is both legislator and judge. Her judgments and mandates are law and usually unquestioned. Continued exposure to such a professional situation as this breeds dogmatism.

Some research accomplished in the rural field. Research in rural supervision is not a new venture. Much worth-while work has already been done although, in general, rural studies have dealt more largely with administrative than with supervisory and teaching problems. It must be kept in mind, however, that the solution of the administrative problems in rural education will do a great deal to simplify supervisory problems and decrease their number and importance.

In listing, classifying, and explaining the nature of the accomplished research in the rural field, no attempt at completeness is made. The authors realize that a valuable contribution would result were such a complete compilation of rural-school research projects made, yet such a task is not within the province of this volume. The accomplished researches presented below are merely illustrative of valuable contributions.

1. *Studies in the school attendance of rural pupils.* Attendance is a conditioning factor of school success. What shall the rural teacher do when children are absent to gather potatoes in the

field, harvest tobacco, weed beets, carry on fall plowing, strip tobacco during "case" weather, and so on? How do poor roads, storms, distance from school, illness, the county fair, weddings, religious observances, and so on affect rural-school attendance and how does loss of attendance affect pupil success in school?

Numerous studies of the factors influencing rural-school attendance and progress have been made. Reavis⁶ gathered facts of attendance and facts about the children, their school, and their communities for 6,450 children enrolled in the one-teacher rural schools of five counties in Maryland. The facts about the pupils included their age, sex, grade in which enrolled, promotion or non-promotion, teacher's estimate of school work, distance from school, kind of road traveled in going to school, attendance by months, number of days he walked to school, and other means of transportation, Reavis found that distance from school with no transportation provided is the principal cause of poor attendance. He stated that the pupil's standing in his class is related closely to the number of days he is present. Whether the pupil is ahead or behind the proper grade for his age, whether he is at the head or the foot of his class, whether or not he has a well paid and highly rated teacher, and whether or not he lives in a community interested in education determines to a great extent his school attendance.

Richard W. Cooper and Herman Cooper⁷ studied the attendance factors of the rural schools of Delaware. They established a definite relationship between school attendance and school progress and promotion. Only 50 per cent of those present 50 per cent of the time were promoted, while 90 per cent of those present 90 per cent of the time passed successfully at the end of the school year. The following causes for non-attendance were given:

⁶ G. H. Reavis, *Factors Controlling Attendance in Rural Schools* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1920).

⁷ Richard W. Cooper, and Hermann Cooper, *The One-teacher School in Delaware, A Study of Attendance* (University of Delaware Press, 1925).

<i>Causes</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Agricultural work	40
Illness	29
Other work	11
Parental indifference	8
Weather	5
Other causes	5

Anderson and Kibbe⁸ made an extensive study of rural-school attendance in Wisconsin involving 38,217 pupils and an analysis of the causes of 659,951 days of attendance. They studied such factors as age of pupil, grade in school, type of school, promotions and non-promotions, nationality of parents, length of school year, distance of pupil's home from school, and provisions for transportation. They found that the number of days of absence a year decreased as the grade of the pupil increased. The causes of absence by grades are given in the following table:

TABLE XXIII.—PER CENT OF TOTAL ABSENCES IN EACH GRADE DUE TO EACH CAUSE OF ABSENCE

CAUSE OF ABSENCE	FIRST GRADE	SECOND GRADE	THIRD GRADE	FOURTH GRADE	FIFTH GRADE	SIXTH GRADE	SEVENTH GRADE	EIGHTH GRADE
Home work	2.6	10.9	17.1	23.8	34.2	37.9	43.4	46.3
Outside work2	.3	.6	1.2	1.4	1.2	2.0	2.3
Weather.....	27.0	17.8	14.2	11.7	9.3	8.0	6.5	5.0
Illness	53.2	58.1	55.3	50.9	44.5	41.5	36.0	32.9
Out-of-town	2.4	2.5	2.6	3.8	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.3
Poverty8	.6	.6	.4	.3	.2	.1	.1
Parental indifference	4.9	3.5	3.2	1.8	2.8	2.3	2.4	1.6
Truancy4	.4	.3	.4	.2	.4	.8	.3
Other reasons	8.7	5.9	6.1	6.0	5.3	6.5	6.7	9.2
Total	100.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Absence due to work at home increases with the grade, and absences because of bad weather and illness decrease as the grade

⁸ C. J. Anderson, and Delia Kibbe, *The Determining Factors in Rural School Attendance and Progress*, unpublished study, Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1928.

advances. Boys contribute 53.4 per cent of the absences and girls, 46.6 per cent. Absence from school because of farm work has been greatly reduced through the operation of the compulsory education law. The attendance of children living near school is but little affected by bad weather, whereas that of children living at a distance is greatly affected. Absence because of illness accounts for nearly one-half of the total number of absences and occurs largely in the first four months of the calendar year. Where transportation is furnished, absence is decreased. Schools with a nine-month year have less absence than those with an eight-month year. Attendance depends to a large extent upon the distance from the pupil's home to school. Pupils were placed into three groups upon the basis of their intelligence quotients. Attendance appears to have a direct relationship to intelligence. The average number of days of attendance of promoted pupils is 156.6 and of non-promoted pupils is 132.8 days. Attendance varies with the occupation of the parents. The children of farm tenants are absent 76 per cent more than the children of farm owners.

Cooper⁹ presents the most recent study in this field and traces the attendance of rural pupils in Delaware for eight continuous years in order to determine the loss due to transfer and in order to analyze the records of progress and attendance attained by those who remained in the system for the entire period. For the eight-year period studied he found that one-third of the total time lost is due to days not enrolled. During the eight years the average pupil attended six and one-fifth years.

The typical pupil making normal progress is absent about two-thirds of a year during his eight years of school. The typical pupil retarded one year is absent or not enrolled the equivalent of two school years. The typical pupil retarded two years is absent or not enrolled the equivalent of three and one-half school years.

⁹ Hermann Cooper, *An Accounting of Progress and Attendance of Rural Children in Delaware*, Contributions to Education, No. 422 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

Even such brief summaries as can be given here indicate that regular school attendance is vital to pupil promotion and for this reason becomes a crucial supervisory problem.

2. *Pupil status in the rural school.* Kyte¹⁰ has gathered, integrated, and organized published and unpublished data dealing with the (a) age-grade status of pupils, (b) promotion and non-promotion in the rural school with causes, (c) health of pupils, (d) mentality of pupils, and (e) achievement of pupils. His conclusions follow:

In general, the *age-grade status* of the rural-school child who continues in school is relatively the same as that of the child in the city schools. In the middle elementary grades, there are larger percentages of over-age children in rural schools than in city schools. The rural-school teachers tend to promote a smaller percentage of their pupils than do the city-school teachers, the greatest differences occurring in the first, seventh, and eighth grades. The number of non-promotions together with the number of eliminations produce in both types of schools much larger enrollments in the lower elementary grades than in the upper ones. The smaller the school, however, the greater is the percentage of enrollment in the lower grades. The causes of non-promotion and the subjects causing the greatest difficulty in these cases are quite similarly distributed in the rural schools and the urban schools.

The limited data regarding *health conditions* indicate the existence of conflicting influences operating in different types of communities. While rural-school pupils are working under a greater handicap than urban-school children, owing to the greater number of physical defects found in the former, the rates of occurrence of cases and of deaths due to typhoid fever, diphtheria, and measles indicate that the country child is more fortunately situated than is his city cousin. On the other hand, poliomyelitis seems to be primarily an infant's disease in the city and a disease of children of school age in the country.

The *mental ages* of rural first-grade children are only slightly lower than those of urban first-grade children in the various states from which data could be obtained. In succeeding higher grades the differences increase until by the time children reach the sixth grade the average rural-

¹⁰ George C. Kyte, "Pupil Status in the Rural Elementary School," in the *Thirtieth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, 1931, Ch. iii.

school child in a grade is mentally a year or more younger than the average city-school child in the corresponding grade.

The corresponding data regarding *intelligence quotients* yield central tendencies similar to those found regarding the mental ages. In the first two grades, the intelligence quotient of the average child in the rural school is slightly lower than that of the average child in the corresponding grade in the city school. The differences between mean and median intelligence quotients become significant in the third grade and even more marked in the upper grades; the higher quotients occur among the average children in urban schools as contrasted with those of the average rural-school children in the same grade.

School achievement of pupils in rural schools, as measured by standardized educational tests, is less satisfactory than that of city-school pupils. Size of school and length of school term seem to be factors operating to cause some of the differences existing. The poorest results in rural schools, as contrasted with those in city schools, occur in subjects other than the "three R's." The achievements in the conventional subjects, however, are less satisfactory in each grade of the rural school than in the corresponding grade of the city school.

With respect to the *achievement quotient*, when intelligence and achievement scores are considered together, with intelligence rendered constant between children in rural schools compared with children in city schools, the former are found to be achieving as satisfactory results as the latter in the "three R's," which are in keeping with their general readiness. In such studies as history, geography, and nature study, however, the relative accomplishments of the rural-school pupils are meager as compared with those of their city cousins.

The *general status* of the rural elementary-school pupil is, therefore, a clearly less satisfactory one than that of the city elementary-school pupil. In order to ascertain with a high degree of accuracy the specific causes of the difference and the interrelation of each factor operating with every other one, numerous intensive studies involving a series of controlled factors need to be made. When such new and refined data are obtained as these investigations will yield, experimentation can be carried on for the purpose of eradicating the apparent handicaps under which the rural-school child must now compete with the city-school child. As has been already pointed out, many beginnings have been made in these types of research. In spite of these initial efforts and of all the research carried on to date, it is possible to undertake a study in almost every phase of research regarding the rural-school pupil and make a much needed contribution in his behalf.

The data given in the investigations from which these conclusions are drawn are of value to the rural supervisor, since they present factors some of which, at least, are under his control and can be corrected. Other factors which he cannot alter are of value in enabling him intelligently to interpret the achievement of rural pupils.

3. *Status of rural teachers.* It is quite obvious that the outstanding factor in rural supervision is the training, experience, tenure, and age of the teacher. The supervisor's work is hinged to these factors. A somewhat detailed presentation of the status of the rural teacher is made in Chapter I of this text and need not be repeated here. A newspaper clipping under date of July 19, 1931, gives a brief, partial summary in the following form of a recent report of the Federal Office of Education:

The typical teacher of the 153,000 one-room rural schools in the United States is 27 years old, a federal educational survey reveals.

Her teaching experience totals two years and six months. She receives an annual salary of \$874 and has charge of 22 farm children. She is employed in school 152 days a year.

The most recent reports and investigations dealing with the status of the rural teacher are included in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

4. *The teaching difficulties of rural teachers.* What are the crucial problems of the rural teacher? Certainly this is a question of moment to the rural supervisor, for it to a great degree determines the objectives of the supervisory program. Anderson and Kibbe¹¹ listed and classified nearly 20,000 teacher difficulties obtained from the rural teachers of Wisconsin. The summary tables are given on pages 443-447.

In the beginning of this study the rural school teachers of Wisconsin were invited to coöperate by listing outstanding problems which they encountered in their actual teaching activities. They were asked to do

¹¹ C. J. Anderson and Delie E. Kibbe, *Field Problems of Wisconsin Rural Teachers* (Dept. of Public Instruction of Wisconsin, 1929).

this during a period of three weeks early in the fall, three weeks near the middle of the year, and for three weeks near the close of school in the spring. By this time-distribution, a preponderance of problems peculiar to a given season was avoided and those typical of a full year of teaching experience were secured. Teachers were instructed to list the two or three problems each week which had caused them the most thought and upon which they would have liked to secure supervisory assistance.

It may be noted that the problems are classified according to the general underlying principles involved rather than according to their special application to a teaching situation. For instance, problems of motivation of specific subjects are classified under motivation in general rather than under the teaching of phonics, geography, or arithmetic. Problems arising from individual differences in ability or experience within the class group are listed as individual differences among pupils rather than as problems of a specified subject. The principles of motivation in history cannot be widely different from the principles of motivation in science. The recognition of and provision for individual differences in geography do not present problems distinct from those in arithmetic. The problems encountered in selecting, adapting, and organizing materials in one subject become clear to a teacher who has solved the question of selecting, adapting, and organizing materials in another subject. For these reasons, such situations were classified as problems of general rather than specific technique.

While many of the problems listed may seem trivial and unimportant yet they are, apparently, real problems to the young and inexperienced teacher and for that reason should receive attention from the institutions training young people for positions in which they may be confronted with just such difficult situations. Some of the questions are too general, vague, and indefinite to be effective guides in supplying supervisory help. These disclose the lack of a keenly thoughtful attitude on the part of the teacher. Such questions as, "How to maintain order" or, "How to teach reading" are indications of the habits of thinking acquired by these teachers. Is this type of thinking the goal of our educational program?

This great number and extensive variety of problems present more or less significant implications for teacher-training. The majority of the questions call for immediate concrete help. Many possible failures may be converted into future successes if such concrete help is provided. However, training institutions and supervisors should by no means restrict their efforts to guidance on this level. Young teachers need to have wider interests, broader vision, and deeper insight into the large general aims, purposes and outcomes of education.

SUMMARY OF RURAL TEACHER PROBLEMS

	Number of Problems	Per Cent
I. Problems of general technique.....	12,596	63.8
II. Problems of special technique.....	3,867	19.6
III. Problems of general management.....	2,384	12.1
IV. Problems of community relationships.....	893	4.5
Total.....	19,740	100.

PROBLEMS OF GENERAL TECHNIQUE

	Number of Problems	Per Cent
I. Individual differences.....	2,516	20.0
II. Selection and organization of subject matter.....	2,146	17.0
III. Planning work.....	1,932	15.3
IV. Motivation.....	1,317	10.5
V. Measuring achievement.....	1,090	8.7
VI. Class management.....	634	5.0
VII. Special teaching techniques.....	413	3.3
VIII. General habits of conduct.....	2,548	20.2
Total.....	12,596	100.
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
A. Differences in native ability among normal children.....	730	29.0
B. Differences in native ability among pupils of subnormal mentality.....	108	4.3
C. Differences in achievement.....	112	4.5
D. Differences due to combinations of grades.....	498	19.8
E. Differences due to pupils entering from other schools.....	151	6.0
F. Differences due to absence and late or irregular entrance.....	304	12.1
G. Differences due to unequal maturity levels.....	35	1.4
H. Differences due to use of foreign language in the home.....	96	3.8
I. Differences in character traits.....	191	7.6
J. Differences in physical equipment.....	94	3.7
K. Specific provisions for individual differences.....	197	7.8
Total.....	2,516	100.
<i>Selection and Organization of Subject Matter</i>		
A. Determining sources and selecting materials.....	446	20.8
B. Determining and organizing available materials.....	1,533	71.4
C. Evaluation of subject matter.....	35	1.6
D. Determining difficulty of material.....	38	1.8
E. Adapting materials to time limits.....	94	4.4
Total.....	2,146	100.

PROBLEMS OF GENERAL TECHNIQUE—Continued

	Number of Problems	Per Cent
<i>Planning Work</i>		
A. Budgeting time.....	796	41.2
B. Mastering subject matter to be taught.....	22	1.1
C. Lesson plans.....	92	4.8
D. Organizing work at beginning of the year.....	181	9.4
E. Planning in relation to the course of study.....	122	6.3
F. Planning in relation to available materials, texts, etc.....	719	37.2
Total.....	1,932	100.
<i>Motivation</i>		
A. Securing interest in general.....	721	54.8
B. Motivating specific subjects.....	489	37.1
C. Arousing interest of different types of pupils.....	107	8.1
Total.....	1,317	100.
<i>Measuring Achievement</i>		
A. Determining situation at beginning of year.....	62	5.7
B. Grading and promotion.....	554	50.8
C. Marking papers and report cards.....	136	12.5
D. Tests and examinations.....	338	31.0
Total.....	1,090	100.
<i>Class Management</i>		
A. Securing attention.....	36	5.7
B. Securing pupil participation.....	403	63.6
C. Use of class time.....	68	10.7
D. Assigning the lesson.....	83	13.1
E. Conducting a class of one or two pupils.....	44	6.9
Total.....	634	100.
<i>Special Teaching Techniques</i>		
A. Conducting review and drill exercises.....	381	92.3
B. Presenting new material and problem solving.....	13	3.1
C. Developing appreciations, attitudes, etc.....	19	4.6
Total.....	413	100.
<i>General Habits of Conduct</i>		
A. Work habits, attitudes, and ideals.....	860	33.8
B. Character traits.....	617	24.2
C. Conduct and discipline.....	954	37.4
D. Problems of conduct on part of teacher.....	117	4.6
Total.....	2,548	100.

PROBLEMS OF SPECIAL TECHNIQUE

	Number of Problems	Per Cent
I. Reading.....	1,721	44.5
II. English.....	545	14.1
III. Arithmetic.....	553	14.3
IV. Penmanship.....	287	7.4
V. Spelling.....	271	7.0
VI. Geography.....	93	2.4
VII. History and civics.....	96	2.5
VIII. Physiology and hygiene.....	28	.7
IX. Nature study.....	33	.9
X. Agriculture.....	4	.1
XI. Music.....	100	2.6
XII. Drawing.....	69	1.8
XIII. Opening exercises.....	12	.3
XIV. Current events.....	55	1.4
Total.....	3,867	100.
<i>Reading Problems</i>		
A. General problems.....	534	31.0
B. Specific skills and abilities.....	294	17.1
C. Fundamental habits and skills—first grade.....	193	11.2
D. Fundamental habits and skills—Grades 2 to 8.....	115	6.7
E. Problems of detail in reading work.....	31	1.8
F. Phonics.....	353	20.5
G. Reading circle and library work.....	121	7.0
H. Dictionary.....	80	4.7
Total.....	1,721	100.
<i>English</i>		
A. Oral and written expression.....	383	70.3
B. Grammar.....	162	29.7
Total.....	545	100.
<i>Arithmetic</i>		
A. Fundamental processes.....	404	73.1
B. Drill work.....	37	6.7
C. Reasoning processes.....	103	18.6
D. General problems.....	9	1.6
Total.....	553	100.
<i>Penmanship</i>		
A. General—all grades.....	240	83.6
B. First grade.....	47	16.4
Total.....	287	100.
<i>Spelling</i>		
A. General problems.....	212	78.2
B. Problems in certain grades.....	29	10.7
C. Pre-test.....	30	11.1
Total.....	271	100.

PROBLEMS OF GENERAL MANAGEMENT

	Number of Problems	Per Cent
I. Attendance and tardiness.....	751	31.5
II. Management of pupils outside of class hours.....	516	21.6
III. Physical conditions.....	452	19.0
IV. Equipment and supplies.....	331	13.9
V. Miscellaneous duties of teacher.....	334	14.0
Total.....	2,384	100.
<i>Attendance and Tardiness</i>		
A. Attendance.....	561	74.7
B. Tardiness.....	190	25.3
Total.....	751	100.
<i>Management of Pupils Outside of Class Hours</i>		
A. Calling and dismissing school.....	136	26.3
B. Management of pupils on way to and from school.....	67	13.0
C. Lunch problems.....	72	14.0
D. Noon and recess problems.....	72	14.0
E. Playground problems.....	169	32.7
Total.....	516	100.
<i>Physical Conditions</i>		
A. Problems relating to school building.....	59	13.1
B. Heating and ventilating.....	95	21.0
C. Seating.....	72	15.9
D. Blackboards.....	42	9.3
E. Water supply.....	42	9.3
F. Toilets and grounds.....	41	9.1
G. Health and sanitation.....	101	22.3
Total.....	452	100.
<i>Equipment and Supplies</i>		
A. Textbooks and supplementary reading.....	206	62.2
B. Miscellaneous supplies and equipment.....	125	37.8
Total.....	331	100.
<i>Miscellaneous Duties of Teachers</i>		
A. Janitorial work.....	90	26.9
B. Library management.....	74	22.2
C. Register and reports.....	150	44.9
D. Legal powers and duties.....	20	6.0
Total.....	334	100.

PROBLEMS OF COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

	Number of Problems	Per Cent
I. Coöperation of community.....	358	40.1
II. Extracurricular activities.....	351	39.3
III. Relations with the school board.....	102	11.4
IV. Personal problems of teacher.....	82	9.2
Total.....	893	100.
<i>Coöperation of Community</i>		
A. General interest in school.....	111	31.0
B. Coöperation in specific school activities.....	52	14.5
C. Coöperation of parents regarding individual pupils.....	195	54.5
Total.....	358	100.
<i>Extracurricular Activities</i>		
A. School entertainments.....	127	36.2
B. School society.....	91	25.9
C. Fair work, credit work, and contests.....	38	10.8
D. Parent-teacher association.....	69	19.7
E. Miscellaneous extracurricular activities.....	26	7.4
Total.....	351	100.

What implications have such questions for teacher-training? First, it appears that many of the student activities have been concerned with device-level tricks. There is evidence that these young people have acquired the habit of asking for the concrete device which may be used in a particular situation. The underlying principle involved in the case at hand is not the avenue along which the teacher searches for a solution. Second, teachers have not acquired the habit of analyzing the problem-situation into its elements. The question, "How shall I teach reading" discloses the fact that the teacher does not think in terms of the specific habits, skills, and abilities involved in the reading process. Nor is a diagnostic attitude apparent. The question is not, Why is this child failing? Is failure due to one or more of very specific conditions? Surely effort should be made to sensitize teachers to the significance of the problems which they face. How much of the short training period may deal with underlying principles of education and what time should be devoted to concrete devices and procedures are other questions to be answered through further study.

The question of the best procedure for training prospective teachers to meet actual teaching situations in the future is a crucial one. Should

general principles and procedures be stressed in a course in general technique or should the principles of motivation, selection and organization of materials, establishing right habits of work and conduct be made a part of special methods courses? Is there unnecessary duplication in the latter plan? Is the transfer from a general to a particular situation beyond the ability of young students? The answers to such questions should be valuable guides in the reorganization of teacher-training activities.

The problems herein listed are equally useful to the supervisors of teachers in service. Too frequently supervisors are known to offer the teacher the help they think the teacher needs. Too infrequently are teachers given an opportunity to ask for the help they most desire. If written records are kept of supervisory suggestions it would be interesting to check over and classify the suggestions offered. A comparison might then be made to determine how frequently the supervisor had helped in solving the problem which the teacher recognized as a major difficulty. If teachers were encouraged to note their questions in anticipation of a conference with the supervisor, the conference might be more direct, definite, and specifically helpful. Too, if supervisors would carry these problems back to the individual training institution in which the teacher has been trained, further improvement of teacher-training could be effected.

5. *The activities of rural supervisors.* There is probably no person employed in the teaching profession busier than the rural supervisor. How does she spend her time? With what activities is she engaged? What is their relative importance? These questions are of value and have been answered in part by job-analysis studies of the work of the rural supervisor. In an earlier chapter of this text some of the important investigations dealing with the activities of the rural supervisor have been summarized. These investigations¹² by Southall, Kibbe, the State Department of Education of Maryland, and others call attention to present activities and desirable shifts of emphasis. The *Eighth Yearbook*¹³ of the Department of Superintendence presents a similar study of the duties and activities of urban supervisors and principals.

¹² See Ch. IV of this text for a summary of these investigations.

¹³ *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930, Ch. iii.

The activities of supervisors in the classroom are discussed in the *Third Yearbook*¹⁴ of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. It is very important to the supervisor to study such information, not that conformity to a mathematical division of time will make him a good supervisor, but it will help to make proper adjustments of time and call attention to the less valuable supervisory activities. This is not a new field. The pioneer investigations have been made. Much research is necessary, however, to determine the comparative effectiveness of the various supervisory activities. These have not been evaluated under controlled experimental conditions.

6. *Analyses of supervisory bulletins.* Perhaps less attention has been paid to the development and growth of supervisory bulletins than to any other supervisory procedure, yet in number and importance they are growing by leaps and bounds. Anderson¹⁵ has collected, classified, and evaluated a large number of supervisory bulletins. A summary of his study is given in Chapter XI of this text. He found very few so-called "supervisory" bulletins that were worthy of the name. They were largely directions to teachers, amplifications and interpretations of the course of study, and suggestions for teaching on the "device" level. Supervisory bulletins take the place of personal visits for the rural supervisor. As such they become of tremendous importance and should be subject to the most rigorous scrutiny. Their study, evaluation, and improvement is largely an unexplored field.

7. *Relative effectiveness of various supervisory procedures.* Supervisors use a great variety of procedures in realizing the objectives of a program of supervision. Teachers' meetings, group conferences, classroom visits, committee meetings, individual conferences, demonstration lessons, professional reading circle work, extension classes, intervisits of teachers, supervisory bulletins,

¹⁴ *Third Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1930.

¹⁵ C. J. Anderson, *An Analysis and Evaluation of Supervisory Bulletins*, unpublished study at the University of Wisconsin, 1927.

experimentation, and a variety of other procedures occupy their time. Do these vary in effectiveness? Are some more economical of time and energy than others and at the same time as effective? Here again we have a relatively unexplored field so far as the rural supervisor is concerned. Two investigations in this field—one in rural supervision and one in urban supervision—are reported in the *Eighth Yearbook*¹⁶ of the Department of Superintendence and are summarized below:

a. Relative effectiveness of the group supervisory conference and the individual supervisory conference. An experiment to determine the relative effectiveness of group and individual supervisory conferences was conducted by Henry H. Fuller¹⁷ and reported briefly in Chapter XIV of this text. Fuller found that the individual conference was far more effective than the group conference and its continuance is fully justified.

b. Measuring the effects of supervision in geography. Courtis¹⁸ has reported an experiment designed to measure the relative effectiveness of:

- (1) Inspected schools
- (2) Supervised schools
- (3) Supervised classes

The field of application was geography. An unsupervised group was used for control purposes. After six weeks of the above types of supervisory activities, tests were given parallel to those given at the beginning of the experiment. The computed gains and "per cents of desired gain" were used as indices of the relative effectiveness of the types of supervision employed. The results showed that supervision by classes was the most effective of the three supervisory procedures tried.

¹⁶ *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930.

¹⁷ Henry Harrison Fuller, "The Relative Effectiveness of the Group Supervisory Conference and the Individual Supervisory Conference" (School of Education, University of Michigan, 1929).

¹⁸ S. A. Courtis, "Measuring the Effects of Supervision in Geography," *School and Society*, Vol. 10 (1919), pp. 61-70.

The researches reported above deal almost entirely with the rural schools. Many other studies, while made with pupils in urban schools, apply with equal effectiveness in the rural-school field. They indicate the possibilities of research for the rural school supervisor and rural teachers.

Difficulties in carrying on research in rural schools. It is quite obvious that research is carried on with difficulty in the rural school. The factors giving rural education its present status are in themselves great obstacles. Small enrollments, small classes, the large teacher turnover, the relative inexperience and inadequate training of teachers, the short school year, the irregular attendance of pupils, the inadequate equipment of schools, all contribute to the difficulties of controlled experimentation. Added to this is the strenuous professional life of the rural supervisor. She travels from 8:00 A.M. until dark and frequently attends meetings in the evening. Rural supervisors are, to a large degree, recruited from the ranks of experienced and successful teachers and in general have had little or no training in research. All such difficulties have been overcome in the past by progressive supervisors and, although they should be recognized, need not be considered insuperable.

Suggested problems for research in the rural field. The problems needing investigation are numerous. To list them all and discuss each is not possible in this volume. A brief list of important problems is given below:

1. *What is the most effective unit of rural supervisory organization?* Chapter II describes a number of plans of organization. Experiments evaluating supervision have not measured the value of the *plan*, but have evaluated the presence or absence of supervision.

2. *What is the most effective grouping of children in the rural school?* The rural school with its enrollment of from five to thirty pupils under one teacher has adopted the graded system of the urban school. The result has been that the teacher meets from twenty to thirty classes a day with two, three, and four pupils

in a class. In Chapter V there are described several schemes for a more effective grouping of children which will reduce the number of classes a day and which will make possible more effective teacher direction of pupil activities. It is obvious that eight distinct grades of pupils in a school with an average enrollment of twenty-five pupils is unnecessary and inefficient.

3. *Can the individualized plan of teaching, as developed in the Winnetka school system; be utilized in schools where classes are small?* On the surface, the Winnetka plan seems better adapted to the small rural school than to any other type. Teachers are not trained to carry on this individualized method of teaching, nor are suitable materials of instruction developed for such work in rural schools. This is a fruitful field of experimentation, which, if successful, would prove of immense value in meeting the problems introduced by the ranges of ability, maturity, and achievement represented in the rural school.

4. *What are the possibilities of the radio as a means of instruction in the rural school?* An experiment in the field of music has been carried on in Dane County, Wisconsin, through the coöperation of the School of Music and the Department of Speech of the University of Wisconsin. Similar experiments in other fields should be tried to determine the possibility of providing in such special fields as music, dramatics, etc., the richness of material and opportunities available to the urban child.

5. *What does visual education have to offer to the rural school?* At the present time a vast amount of material in the fields of nature study, geography, industry, history, and literature has been prepared and is available to schools having projection lanterns and moving-picture machines. The urban child may now view every step involved in the manufacture of automobiles, cotton cloth, steel rails, and a great variety of other products. Through the celluloid film he sees the planting of a seed, the growth, blossoming, and decay of the plant. At his command the screen pictures the intimate life of the beaver, including the building of dams and of houses, the care of the young, and the

beavers at play. Vicariously he may visit the jungles of Africa with Martin Johnson and see the millions of wild animals in their native haunts. Visual education offers tremendous possibilities for the school. Experimental work in making this instrument of education adapted for use in rural schools will be of value.

6. *What is the value of the phonograph in music and in speech education?* A great number of rural schools are now equipped with the phonograph. Is it being used merely for recreational purposes or has it become a tool of instruction in the rural school? In some states the phonograph is used in connection with music textbooks for the teaching of music. Rural teachers are seldom trained sufficiently in music to teach it as successfully as can the special music teacher in the urban schools. It is possible that a large part of this handicap can be overcome through the development and use of instructional phonograph records. This has already been done to some extent. Additional experimental work is needed in this field.

7. *What correlation and integration of subject matter can be brought about?* The classification of subject matter represented by courses in geography, history, English, and so on, are artificial in the sense that life does not present such divisions. The interests of specialists result in the constant lopping off of additional special fields. Schools now face the task of correlating and integrating this classified material. Institutions of higher learning have taken the lead in this matter. It is time that our elementary schools, particularly those in rural areas, should recognize the teaching possibilities of a body of well correlated and integrated subject matter. This is especially necessary for rural schools where the problems of small classes, large numbers of classes, and overemphasized gradation are acute.

8. *What should be the curriculum of the rural school?* During the past decade a great deal of experimental work and investigation has been carried on in the field of the elementary-school curriculum. Such investigations have been reported in the year-

books of the various societies and conferences interested in education. Relatively little has been done in the rural field. Brim and others have called to our attention the formal, rigid, meager curriculum of the rural school. The time has come to free the rural child from this fixed curriculum. In most states the rural curriculum is developed by the state and not by the rural unit of administration. The field of experimentation in developing suitable curricula for the rural schools is ripe.

9. *What standards should be used in the preparation of rural supervisory bulletins?* The rural supervisor visits the teacher in the classroom an average of five times a year. Some method of reaching the teacher other than the personal visit must be developed. The supervisory bulletin is suggested as an admirable substitute, if properly conceived and well prepared. What are the earmarks of a good supervisory bulletin? Various types of bulletins may be prepared and tested out under controlled conditions.

10. *What are the most effective methods and devices for training teachers in service?* Attention has been called to the procedures now used by supervisors. It is quite possible and highly probable that some of them are relatively ineffective. Some experimental work has been done to determine the most effective procedures. Attention is called to the experiments reported on pages 449-450. Additional experiments of this type should be carried on by the rural supervisors.

11. *What are the most effective types of teaching?* It is, of course, realized that this question cannot be answered in such a way as to apply to all situations. Nevertheless, in given situations various types of teaching may be compared and contrasted by means of controlled experiments. In the development of supervisory programs the supervisor needs to check on the methods used by teachers and to suggest more effective methods. Experimental work must be carried on in order to make this possible.

12. *What are the legitimate activities of pupils and teachers in the classroom?* Anderson, Barr, and Bush present a number

of systematic reports of recitations and indicate methods by which these recitations may be analyzed and evaluated.¹⁹ This work should be carried on under the experimental conditions in the rural field.

13. *What is the most effective administrative organization for rural recreation, rural health service, and rural library service?* Because of the relatively small amount of taxable wealth back of the education of the rural child and because of the relative isolation of the rural school it has been considered impossible in most states to provide such well developed programs of recreation, health education, and library service for rural schools as have been provided for urban centers. Wisconsin has developed a plan of county nurses who visit rural schools and check on health conditions. California has developed a system of county libraries. Every rural school in the United States should have available facilities in these three fields equivalent to those offered to children in urban centers.

14. *What is the attitude of teachers toward the rural supervisors?* Many teachers resent supervision because of its negative character; others because of its dogmatism; and still others because of its authoritativeness. Letters have been written to state departments by teachers complaining of rural supervision because the supervisor makes a record of her visit but never permits the teacher to see the record. Complaints vary as to nature, type, and merit. If this material could be gathered together and classified it should be of value to the rural supervisor.

15. *What is the present median tenure of office of rural supervisors?* In some states this is governed by political conditions. When a new county superintendent is elected he often dismisses the supervisors in office and appoints persons of his own selection. It is obvious, of course, that with a short and uncertain tenure the rural supervisor cannot do his most effective work. Studies should be made of regulations pertaining to tenure in the

¹⁹ C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and Maybell G. Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work* (D. Appleton & Co., 1925).

various states where rural supervisors are employed. Suitable tenure provisions should be drawn up and urged for adoption throughout the country.

16. *What should be the minimum essentials in the training of rural supervisors?* In many states the rural supervisor was at first considered as a helping teacher. With that thought in mind the first selections of supervisors were made from the group of veteran rural teachers. The standards in training and experience for this position have been progressively increased. Some attention should now be given to the specific details of this training. It is quite conceivable that persons holding a master's degree from a recognized university may be totally unprepared for the position of rural supervisor. Careful studies should be made to determine the essentials in the training and equipment of these rural-school supervisors.

Summary. The application of scientific techniques to rural supervision will do much to relieve it of its subjective and dogmatic character. The reported research already accomplished has dealt with:

1. Studies of attendance and progress in rural schools
2. Status of rural teachers
3. Problems of rural teachers
4. Activities of rural supervisors
5. Analysis of supervisory bulletins
6. Evaluation of supervisory procedures

Small enrollments in rural schools, irregular attendance of pupils, the rapid teacher turnover, the inadequate training and experience of teachers, the meager equipment of rural schools, the lack of training in methods of educational research on the part of supervisors, and lack of time to carry on research are obstacles to the development of this activity.

The rural school is our greatest unsolved educational problem. Although the entire system needs reorganization, the solution of our rural-school problem lies, in part, in the most effective use of the present educational facilities. Any increase in effectiveness

will probably be a result of well planned and well executed research.

Needed research deals with problems centering around:

1. Correlation and integration of the various subject matter fields
2. A regrouping of the pupils
3. The development of techniques effectively to meet the problem of small and numerous classes
4. Possible uses of the phonograph, moving-picture machine, and the radio
5. Analytical studies of the most effective types of teaching and materials of instruction
6. Evaluations of present supervisory procedures
7. The development of effective administrative machinery to provide in rural areas for recreation, health service, and libraries
8. The minimum essentials of the training of rural supervisors
9. Case studies of teaching and supervision

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